

The Nation.

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The Week.

The religious press of the country appears to have been struck dumb by President McKinley's grisly speech at Pittsburgh. Of the dozen or more of last week's denominational journals which we have looked over, only one or two so much as refer as a matter of news to McKinley's summons to the slaughter, and not one utters a word of either approval or condemnation. This must mean that there is a good deal of searching of heart going on in religious circles. At least one week more of reflection will be necessary before the professed heralds of peace can bring themselves to go in for a war of extermination. But why do the religious papers conceal from their readers the fact that slavery and polygamy are now thriving under the American flag in the Sulu archipelago? Perhaps the editors are really ignorant that such is the fact. It has been so carefully burked in the *Tribune* and other head-in-the-sand newspapers, that it may not have reached the ecclesiastical sanctums as yet. It cannot be that Christian ministers will hold their peace when they find McKinley annexing slavery and polygamy, and promising not to interfere with them. We think that the country would even consent to see the flag "hauled down" under these circumstances.

A great deal of valuable information concerning the exact situation in the Philippines is furnished in the letter from the *Evening Post's* Manila correspondent, dated July 29. He confirms the statements which have been made by many returning army and navy officers, and by other visitors to the islands whose utterances have been published during the past few months. After a year of occupation and six months of fighting, we hold to-day barely more than 1 per cent. of the territory of the islands, and have in subjugation not over 5 per cent. of the population. From 15 to 18 per cent. of our troops are incapacitated for service by sickness due to the climate, and so anxious are they all to get home that only enough to organize six companies, instead of seven regiments as claimed, can be induced to remain after their time has expired. The way in which "official news" on this latter point has been manufactured was shown by Congressman Lentz, in his speech at Cooper Union on Monday evening. He said that when a dispatch from Gen. Otis was given out at Washington, reading, "Volunteers willing to re-

main," he went to the War Department and asked to see the original, which proved to be as follows: "Volunteers unwilling to reenlist, but willing to remain until transports arrive." That was a feat in "editing" worthy of the most expert partisan journalist that ever conducted an "organ."

One clear case of our bad faith in the Philippines is our use of the money raised by taxation. Article VI. of the proclamation issued by the Philippine Commission on April 4 explicitly promised that "the public funds" should be "applied only to defraying the proper expenses of the establishment and maintenance of the Philippine government," and that "local funds collected for local purposes shall not be diverted to other ends." On top of this comes the admission by the Washington authorities that Gen. Otis has collected something like \$5,200,000 in taxes; and that of this he has spent only \$200,000 in public improvements, while appropriating \$3,000,000, with the approval of this Government, to the uses of the American army; a balance of \$2,000,000 remaining on hand. Yet the natives are blamed for saying that the Americans are liars and oppressors, and for complaining that they are worse off—taxed more heavily and given less liberty—than under Spanish rule. President Schurman, in his tardy conference with Mr. McKinley, may be inquiring why this particular promise made by the Philippine Commission was so flagrantly broken.

The election in the Eighth Congressional District of Missouri on August 29, to choose a successor to the late Representative Bland, was of national importance. This is not because the opposing candidates were men of national reputation, as his persistent leadership of the free-coinage movement had made Mr. Bland, but because the campaign was conducted solely on the issue of the expansion policy, and the verdict was to be the first expression of popular opinion on that issue at the polls. The Democratic convention of the district adopted a platform which declared that "we are unreservedly opposed to the militarism and imperialism of President McKinley," and the Democratic candidate made his fight on this plank. The Republican platform expressed the belief that it is "the duty of Congress, as declared by our President, to establish a form of government suited to the needs of all the inhabitants of the territory that the providence of Almighty God and the fortunes of war have brought under our control"; and the Republican candidate strongly upheld the President's policy,

publicly announcing from the stump that McKinley's administration and Philippine policy were on trial, and that to defeat him would be a declaration by the people against that policy. The Republicans entered the campaign with perfect confidence that they would greatly reduce Mr. Bland's majority of 2,800 a year ago, and with strong hopes of "redeeming" the district, especially as there had been dissensions over the Democratic nomination, and the candidate selected was objectionable to the extreme silverites. Instead of this, the Republicans have lost ground, and their candidate is beaten by a larger majority than in 1898.

A Republican organ which warmly supports the expansion policy, recently quoted the platforms of the two parties on this issue, and remarked that, "as will be seen, the two parties take opposite grounds on the expansion question, and it will be interesting to know with which side the majority of the voters agree." Another newspaper advocate of expansion said on the very day of election that the result would be "interesting, because the candidate of the Democracy is an open opponent of the retention of the Philippines and the prosecution of the war to enforce the authority of our flag." There are other interesting features of the result than the overwhelming defeat of the expansionists. One is the fact that the Philippine business was the one thing which engrossed the attention of the people. Another is the fact that the Republicans lost most heavily where the most canvassing was done by the Democrats along anti-expansion lines, and that "Republican strongholds" refused to support the Administration's policy. A third is the indication of the attitude of the German-Americans toward this new issue. These voters are particularly strong in Osage and Cole Counties, and the Republican vote in these two counties was cut down by 500 to 600. The opponents of imperialism have reason to feel greatly encouraged over this result.

The voters of Ohio deserve the commiseration of the nation. They have to choose between a ticket named by the Republican boss upon a platform which commends the President for his recent assault upon civil-service reform, a ticket headed by the Democratic boss, and an independent candidate who is a crank. It will not be surprising if a good many of them take to the woods on election day. With any other candidate than John R. McLean, the Democrats had a fair chance of carrying the State, but they have thrown that chance away. McLean decided this year to name

himself for Governor. There was a good deal of protest before the convention, but nobody who was familiar with the situation expected it to avail. He had a majority of one vote and a half on the first ballot, but he could have had a good deal more had he not decided to let a lot of delegates whom he owned vote for other candidates. His personal manager, we are told, named in advance from a list which he held in his hand the vote of every delegate in the convention, and when the result was announced, he had made a mistake in only one vote. John R. McLean is one of the worst men in American politics. He owns a newspaper which he runs to make money and serve his political ambition. He has always been the bitter foe of civil-service reform and of every other good cause, the earnest promoter of newspaper sensationalism and political demagoguery. The influence of the Cincinnati *Enquirer* under his control during the past quarter of a century has been a curse to the city where it is published, and to the wide region through which it circulates.

It is difficult to treat seriously the platform upon which such a candidate stands, because he is himself the platform. It opens with a reaffirmation of the Chicago platform of 1896, not only in its entirety, but with especial emphasis upon the 16-to-1 plank, and proceeds to demand Bryan's renomination in 1900. There follow some excellent expressions of opinion on the expansion issue, like these: "We recognize the solemn fact that our government cannot be both republican and imperial"; "we are radically and unalterably opposed to imperialism in the United States of America"; "we profoundly regret that American soldiers are being unlawfully used in the name of liberty to crush and destroy dawning republicanism in the Orient"; and "we demand that the Cubans and Filipinos not only be permitted but encouraged to establish independent republics, deriving all of their governmental powers from the consent of the governed." But intermingled with these lofty sentiments is such claptrap as the declaration that "we denounce the secret and vicious alliance now in evidence between England and the Republican Administration, whereby this nation may become involved in war with foreign nations"; and the utterly incomprehensible plank which "denounces the Republican party for its thirty-eight years of abject subserviency to the shipping interests of Great Britain," as a preliminary to denunciation of the so-called Hanna-Payne shipping bill, "which, if enacted into law, would further shackle our interests." For the rest, there is an emphatic plank against Trusts, which demands that articles the prices of which are controlled by such combinations be placed on the free list, and then couples

denunciation of the Republican Attorney-General of the United States for his refusal to enforce the Federal statutes against Trusts with commendation of the Republican Attorney-General of Ohio—who was "turned down" by Hanna—for his earnest efforts to enforce the State laws. Finally, with a cynicism worthy of Quay at his best, the boss of the Democratic party in Ohio had his creatures put forth a virtuous deliverance on bossism—as exemplified in the control of the Republican party in Ohio!

It is only the first week in September, and election does not come until the 7th of November; yet the campaign over the Governorship in Kentucky has already reached the stage of fever-heat. Ex-Congressman Owens made on Thursday a speech in which he denounced Mr. Goebel, the regular Democratic candidate for Governor, as "a murderer, a liar, and a thief," and produced what he considered convincing evidence that, "in cold blood and premeditation, he has violated the three commandments, 'Thou shalt not lie,' 'Thou shalt not steal,' 'Thou shalt not kill.'" We do not recall a more bitter attack by one prominent politician upon another. Such language constitutes "fighting words," according to the Kentucky code, and it is hard to see how Mr. Goebel can refrain from "doing something about it" beyond talking back. It is almost appalling to contemplate nearly nine weeks of campaigning which begins in such fashion as this.

The opponents of Quay gave out that it was not worth while to make a real fight for control of the Republican State convention in Pennsylvania this year, because it would not amount to much, and announced that they were "reserving their resources until the election of members of the Legislature in 1900." But they have discovered that the boss profited by their inaction this year to render it almost impossible for them to carry the Legislature next year. The party rule has been that delegates to the Republican State convention, shall be chosen in the same way that candidates for the General Assembly are nominated. Quay ordered his convention to revise the rules, and there were added to this one the words, "or in accordance with the party rules in force in the respective counties of this commonwealth." This means that in any county where the machine has the county committee, but lacks a majority of the Republican voters, it can make such rules as it needs to secure the State delegates. Far more important and revolutionary than this, however, is an entirely new rule which was rushed through. This provides that, whenever the delegates or conferees in a Congressional, Senatorial, or judicial district cannot agree upon a nomination fifty-five days before election, the chairman of the Republican State committee

shall appoint one "representative Republican" from each county of the district, who shall become a part of the original body, and have the same voice in its deliberations as the original members; and that, if the convention or conference is then unable to agree within five days, the chairman of the State committee shall select a "representative Republican" in the district, who shall act as umpire or referee in making a nomination. Under this system the machine needs only to create a deadlock, which is generally an easy matter, and it can control the nomination.

The malfeasance of two of the Civil-Service Commissioners in Chicago is an illustration of the strong hold which the spoils system has in our politics. In order to provide places for their favorites, these Commissioners have tried to force out of their positions employees against whom no charges could be made. They selected for persecution several examiners who have had the reputation of enforcing the requirements of the civil-service law too stringently, and began by reducing their salaries on the plea of economy. One reduction failing of effect, another was tried; and finally the examiners were ordered to take a month's vacation without salary. Then the Commissioners adopted a resolution that no examiner who was compelled to take a vacation without pay could be reinstated without a special vote to that effect. In this way, one of the Commissioners has been able to make room for two of his sisters, and examinations in the case of the new employees have been dispensed with. Few more scandalous perversions of the civil-service law than this have ever occurred, and we are glad to see that the respectable press of Chicago is insisting that Mayor Harrison shall exercise his power to correct the abuses. That the employees of a Commission appointed to enforce the civil-service law should be subject to arbitrary removal is not to be tolerated.

Gov. Roosevelt has seen the necessity of modifying his impolitic and untruthful outburst about the canal frauds, made in his speech at Hornellsville; but his latest statement of the case, though far more dignified and deliberate, leaves something to be desired in the matter of absolute accuracy. He said at Hornellsville that Messrs. Fox and Macfarlane had found that the charges about canal mismanagement were "infamous lies and slanders," and had "so declared." In Friday's speech he said that these gentlemen "reached the conclusion that no prosecution would lie, that nothing had been done which would justify bringing an action against any public official, or would afford the slightest chance of securing a conviction." He then added: "In short, the whole charge

that there had been criminal misconduct on the part of any of the high canal officials fell to the ground." Did it? Certainly not in the opinion of the special counsel. What did fall to the ground was the possibility of prosecuting anybody for criminal misconduct, because of the interposition of the statute of limitations, and because of the passage by a Republican Legislature of a law which gave the canal officials such large discretionary powers that they could do about as they pleased with the State's money. Why could not the Governor be as frank and fearless as he claims to be, and tell the full truth instead of only part of it? Why should he, after this incomplete statement of the findings of his counsel, say, "I think the charges of corruption were baseless, and discreditable in the highest degree to those making them"? They were certainly not baseless, for the Governor himself admits that he did not consider the officials against whom they were made fit persons to continue in office.

Our administration of Cuba has so far been, on the whole, highly successful, and is as truly to be placed to the credit of the army officers in charge as would be a victorious military campaign. But this fact does not justify misleading comparisons. One such is the contrast drawn on the financial side between American and Spanish control of the island. Our first six months close with a handsome balance in the Cuban Treasury; the Spanish deficits were notorious. But we have arrived at a balance by striking off half the liabilities. Under Spain, Cuba had to pay enormous charges on the public debt; we have sponged those off the slate. The Spanish military establishment in the island had also to be supported by Cuban taxation; the United States pays its own officers and men. With two such heavy items stricken out of the obligations, even a Spanish Governor-General might have shown a surplus. The real triumph and superiority of American occupation are revealed in the hygienic renovation, and rescue of Cuba, and in the restoration of order. Mistakes have been numerous, and in many things Cubans feel themselves outraged by the methods of American officers; but the stamping out of yellow fever, the greatly reduced death-rate, the general sanitary improvement, the public works executed and planned, the lessened burden of taxation—these are the things which shut the mouths of those most disposed to complain, and which constitute for the American officers in charge a distinction as bright as any they could win on a stricken field.

The meeting of the International Law Association this year is made notable by the results of the Peace Conference

at The Hague. This association has for some time directed its attention to the establishment of an international court of arbitration, and, by the unforeseen aid of the Czar of Russia, it suddenly finds its ideals converted into realities. Practical people, we are afraid, have looked on these ideals as altogether visionary. They have thought that it was vain to provide restraints for sovereign Powers. The very term sovereign implies irresponsibility, and no great nation, it has been maintained, would be prevented from going to war by the decree of a court, no matter how august its constitution. Nevertheless, the unforeseen has occurred, and a scheme of international arbitration has actually been adopted. The court to be established by this scheme will be composed of men of high authority as jurists, and its machinery will be so contrived as to facilitate the decision of questions both of right and of fact. But before this enlightened system of international jurisprudence is established, action must be taken by the governments of Christendom. Such action will not be taken spontaneously, and public opinion must be brought to bear on our legislators. The International Law Association is a body peculiarly well fitted to exert such influence, and it is gratifying to observe that it urges its members to take vigorous steps to procure the ratification of the convention of The Hague.

Mr. C. H. Butler's scholarly paper on "Immunity of Private Property at Sea from Capture during War," read before the International Law Association, may seem a rather academic discussion; but, after the sudden impetus which the cause of arbitration received this year, we may venture to entertain new hopes. It is true that The Hague Conference rejected the proposal of the American delegates to consider the question, but its action was placed on the ground that such a discussion was not within the scope of its constitution. The proposal to hold a congress for the especial purpose of considering this subject was received with much favor, and Mr. Butler properly urges that our Government should take the lead by calling such a congress. Its early position in favor of exempting private property from capture has been consistently maintained, and President McKinley has been authorized by Congress, in response to his own suggestion, to consult with the principal maritime Powers with a view to the recognition of this principle in international law. No time should be lost in exercising this authority. Just at present the governments of the world are at peace with one another; but so many clouds are visible on the horizon that it is desirable to press this most important reform as earnestly as possible.

The newspaper correspondents who have retreated from Johannesburg have almost declared war on the Transvaal Republic, and represent the Outlanders as flying in a body from the country. These accounts are probably much exaggerated, and the declaration of war will be postponed. President Krüger shows good sense in disregarding the reports of Mr. Chamberlain's demands which appear from time to time in the newspapers. He says he will discuss these demands when he receives them from Mr. Chamberlain himself, and not before. We are still without positive information concerning the exact state of the negotiations, and some of the accounts are contradictory. It seems to be clear, however, that Mr. Chamberlain demanded a conference, and that the Boers have agreed to a conference. Possibly, as is represented, the British diplomats assumed that the conference was based on the concessions already made, while the Transvaal authorities intend that the whole situation shall be discussed. Nevertheless, the conference will probably take place and result in a settlement of the disputes.

The first General to take the stand for Dreyfus appeared at Rennes on Friday, and his technical argument that no trained artillery officer like Dreyfus could possibly have used the language of the bordereau, was supported by testimony from several younger officers skilled in artillery technique. Witnesses for the prosecution in the day's session were all feeble or fraudulent folk, and the general break-down of the case against Dreyfus was evidenced by a council of war, as it were, held in the evening by the attacking Generals, in company with ex-Minister Cavaignac. It is hinted that they will shortly produce a sensational letter—alleged to be from or to the Emperor of Germany—which they have been keeping back till the day of desperate need. It would probably, however, turn out only one more forgery. No less than eleven forged or falsely attributed documents have already figured in the Dreyfus case, and it is really about time that another should be added to the list. But one would expect Cavaignac to be careful about burning his fingers again in that business. Two of the documents which he read from the tribune with such a flourish on July 7, 1898, and of which he said that he had carefully weighed the authenticity, were confessed forgeries before the month was out. That such a mass of invented or falsified evidence should have been used against Dreyfus is, as was powerfully argued by the old Paris magistrate, M. Bertulus, a strong proof of his innocence. If there were really substantial evidence of his guilt, why all this manufactured and fraudulent evidence?

SAYING DITTO TO SPAIN.

The brutal note in President McKinley's latest Philippine war cry has evidently startled his warmest supporters. "There will be no useless parley, no pause until the insurrection is suppressed." Not one of McKinley's champions in the press of this city has commented on this announcement of a policy of extermination, except with the significant comment of shamefaced silence. They know, if the President does not, where his truculent sentiment came from. It was made in Spain. McKinley is only saying ditto to Weyler, to Polavieja, to Arolas. His threat will carry no surprise to the natives, for they will see in it only a repetition of the fulminations of Spanish Governors-General. To them it will be but one oppressor upholding the language and employing the methods of another. So far as the President is able to commit the United States to a policy in the Philippines, he has now committed us to the Spanish policy. After long denouncing it with unmeasured hatred and abhorrence, we embrace it.

There is no concealment about it. Secretary Root, with the usual insouciance of a civilian Secretary of War, has announced that from now on the war will be prosecuted with "vigour." Senator Elkins interprets this to mean "relentlessly." Naval officers are saying that the thing to do is to blockade every Philippine port and starve the inhabitants. The soldiers in the field have got tired of abandoning towns for the use of the natives, and now burn every house to the ground as they withdraw. In short, the plan of carrying on a "philanthropic" war—of killing people tenderly, and with tears in our eyes—has been abandoned. From now on we are going to kill, burn, ravage, without rest or remorse. The President of the United States proposes to better the instruction of the cruellest Spanish general that ever launched his bloodthirsty decrees in Manila.

It has taken Mr. McKinley a long time, and has doubtless cost him many struggles, to come over to the policy of inhumanity. We may measure the distance he has travelled by comparing his Pittsburgh speech of Monday week with his Boston speech of last February. Then he was all adrip with the milk of human kindness. Every drop of Filipino blood spilled was "anguish to his heart." He was determined to make the natives feel that "we are their friends, not their enemies," by "affording them every opportunity to prosecute their lawful pursuits." So, too, in his illegal proclamation of last December, Mr. McKinley assured the inhabitants of the Philippines that we came "not as invaders or conquerors, but as friends, to protect the natives in their homes, in their employments, and in their personal and religious rights." From all that to the Pre-

sident's no-quarter speech at Pittsburgh is a long journey, though made in so short a time; it is the journey from Lincoln to Torquemada.

Now, we have no idea of trying to make Mr. McKinley out a monster personally. Let him be as amiable and kind-hearted a man as his friends assert him to be. His sudden blossoming out into a merciless conqueror is not a personal, so much as it is a political, development. He has simply stepped into Spain's shoes in the Philippines, and he necessarily begins to look very Spanish. Continuing Spanish methods of taxation, sincerely flattering Spain by imitating her method of calling upon the natives to submit or be killed, it is no wonder that, having begun by saying A and B, he is now saying Z, and undertaking the subjugation of the islands in the very spirit of a Spaniard, announcing his purpose in the words that might have been taken from a proclamation of Gen. Weyler. The cruel situation has been too much for a kindly man. His philanthropy has been slowly transmuted into truculence.

No account of our going over to Spanish methods in the Philippines would be complete which left out the analogy between the Spanish archbishops and the American Methodist bishops. Read the effusive address to Mr. McKinley by Bishop Fitzgerald, at Ocean Grove, week before last. A fighting bishop of the Middle Ages never made a more frightful mixture of war and religion. The President was carrying the flag to the other side of the globe, but he was also "marching with the forces of the Lord under the Banner of the Cross." The Archbishop of Manila never surpassed that. Think of it! Here was a President who had just completed an agreement by which the American flag was again made to float over slaves, as well as over Mohammedan harems; who had encouraged his ally, the fierce Mohammedan chief, Datto Mundi, to fall with his Mussulmans upon the Christians in Zamboanga and slaughter them like so many Armenians falling before Bashibazuks; who had announced his purpose to carry the torch and sword to every part of Luzon—and a Methodist Bishop rises to declare all this the service of God! "In the prophets of Jerusalem I have seen an horrible thing; they walk in lies and strengthen the hands of evil-doers, that none doth return from his wickedness."

THE LIFE-SAVING SERVICE.

Civil-service reform has won such victories as it has achieved largely against the opposition, or at least without the help, of those in whose hands the administration of the merit system would rest. It has been a rare thing for the head of a bureau to show any satisfaction over the application of the rules to his force. An earnest appeal from such

an official for the extension of the classified service to his subordinates would be pronounced incredible by most people familiar with the subject.

But there is one branch of the government which is entitled to this credit. The United States Life-Saving Service, which was organized on the present basis in 1871, has from the very first been controlled by men who sought to make merit the sole test of employment and retention. The chief officers, more than twenty years ago, urged upon Congress the necessity of legislation to hold off the spoilsmen; and, after long effort, they procured the enactment in 1882 of a provision that "the appointment of district superintendents, inspectors, and keepers and crews of life-saving stations, shall be made solely with reference to their fitness, and without reference to their political or party affiliations."

Mr. Sumner I. Kimball, who has been General Superintendent for more than twenty years, holds that this is the first enactment ever made distinctly proposing the exclusion of political considerations from appointments in any branch of the civil service. Without waiting for Congressional action, Superintendent Kimball and the other chief officers had from the first attempted to enforce this principle. District superintendents were always instructed in making their nominations for keepers, and keepers in employing surfmen for their crews, to pay the strictest regard to professional qualifications, to the exclusion of every other consideration. But there was great trouble with the partisan rapacity and activity of persons outside of the service, and every effort was made to reduce places in the service to the level of partisan spoils. In one or two newly organized districts these influences triumphed for a brief time about twenty years ago, with the result that Mr. Kimball redoubled his efforts to secure the law which was finally enacted in 1882.

In reviewing, in his last annual report, the history of the long struggle for the best possible system, Superintendent Kimball says that, "while the statute of 1882 brought much relief, it did not end the attempts of the spoilsmen to subordinate the service to political uses and personal ends. Frequent endeavors were made, 'sometimes springing from more reputable sources than could be expected,' to induce the officers of the service to circumvent the law, or to treat it as a dead letter. When the political complexion of the Administration changed, as after the election of 1884, unfounded charges were made that the officers had conducted the service in the interest of the party which had just gone out of power; and when called upon to be specific, the bringers of these charges affected surprise that a thing so obvious should be doubted, and ridi-

culed the idea that proof should be deemed necessary.

It became clear that relief could be secured only by the inclusion of this bureau within the classified service, and for this Mr. Kimball and his allies labored. President Cleveland's comprehensive order of May 6, 1896, made the change which had so long been sought, and the action was hailed with delight in the Superintendent's office. The new system has now been tried long enough to test its practicability, and it has more than realized what was expected of it. Original admission to the service was fixed at the grade of surfman, the chief qualification for which is, of course, surfmanship. Competitive tests by actual trial in the surf would be expensive and dangerous. Written examinations would not fulfil the purpose. Experience was, therefore, made the criterion, and the names of all competitors attaining a percentage of 70 are entered upon the register of eligibles. Whenever a vacancy occurs at a station, the keeper makes requisition upon the district superintendent for a certification of eligibles, and the names of the three eligibles standing highest on the register for the section in which the vacancy exists are furnished, from among whom the keeper makes his selection, certifying that the choice has been made with reference to fitness only, and without reference to political or party affiliations.

When a vacancy occurs in the place of station-keeper, the district superintendent and the resident assistant inspector jointly recommend the member of a crew in the district whom they deem best fitted for the position, setting forth explicitly their reasons. Written examinations are employed when the place of district superintendent is to be filled, as such officials must be able to solve ordinary problems in arithmetic, keep accounts, conduct correspondence, and use business methods generally. All the keepers in a district where a vacancy occurs are therefore invited to participate in a written competitive examination, and the general superintendent picks out one of the three who stand highest.

The experiment has been tried long enough to warrant a judgment, and Superintendent Kimball reports that "the application of the civil-service rules for the ascertainment of the qualifications of candidates for appointment and promotion has proved quite satisfactory." The first admission to the service under the civil-service rules was on April 1, 1897. From that date to December 1, 1898, a period of twenty months, 339 surfmen were appointed, 17 of whom proved unsatisfactory and were discharged. On the other hand, during the twenty months preceding April, 1897, there were appointed under the old method—that is, each keeper selecting his own men—459, of whom 46 proved

unsatisfactory, and were discharged. In other words, under the new system only 1 out of every 23 has proved unsatisfactory, while under the old system 1 out of every 10 so proved, the percentage of unsatisfactory men under the old being more than double that under the new. Mr. Kimball thus summarizes the beneficent results of the change upon the general condition of the service:

"The relief which the legislation of 1882 failed to bring promises to be realized with the new order of things, and the difficulties and vexations which that law only alleviated seem likely to disappear. Nobody now charges that the appointments in the service are made to subserve political or personal ends, nor, since the promulgation of the President's order of July 27, 1897, prohibiting removals except for just cause—a logical corollary of the civil-service law—that, when removals are made, they are dictated by party spirit or to promote individual interests. Contentment and quiet have superseded the anxiety and excitement which formerly periodically swept along the coast, the officers are permitted to devote their time and talents exclusively to the promotion of the welfare of the service, and the service itself seems to have gathered added strength for a career of usefulness which may excel the notable record of the past."

DREYFUS'S ALLEGED CONFESSION.

Capt. Lebrun-Renaud's appearance, out of the regular order, in the Dreyfus trial on Thursday, marked the desperation of the Generals of the prosecution. The alleged confession of Dreyfus on January 5, 1895, is their last card. They had previously played the secret dossier, only to have it shown to be patent nonsense. They had striven in vain to make out a presentable case for the Dreyfus authorship of the bordereau. Nothing was left but the prisoner's own avowal of guilt, which they have always said would be sworn to when the time came. This has really been their trump card all along. Their answer to all charges of irregularity and unfairness in the 1894 trial has been, "Well, what of it? No wrong was done" an innocent man, for Dreyfus himself confessed, when all was over, that he was guilty."

Now, there are several suspicious things about Capt. Lebrun-Renaud's testimony regarding the confession, yet it will not do to set him down as a conspirator and perjurer. He was sent by Mercier to tell his story to the President, but did not do it, for reasons that appear most unsatisfactory. He destroyed the leaf of his note-book on which he had jotted down his recollection of Dreyfus's language, which was, to say the least, unfortunate. Yet he undoubtedly thought that he had got some sort of confession from Dreyfus. Several officers are ready to swear that he spoke of it to them immediately. Moreover, if he were inventing a "confession," he would hardly have been so clumsy as to begin it with the vehement protest, "I am innocent!" This was what struck the Judges of the Court of Cassation, who said, in that part of their *arrêt* relating to the confession, after showing

that it could not, in any case, be pleaded as an excuse for irregularities in the trial of 1894:

"It is impossible to see in this language an avowal of guilt, since not only does it start off with a protestation of innocence, but it is not possible to determine the full and exact text of what was said, owing to the discrepancies between the successive declarations of Capt. Lebrun-Renaud and those of other witnesses."

One of these discrepancies has reappeared in the present trial. On August 18, Gen. Gonse swore that Lebrun-Renaud had told him that Dreyfus confessed to having delivered "simply copies" of important documents; this Capt. Lebrun-Renaud now denies. It looks as if this were only a theory of the General Staff, to account for the proved fact that not a single original document was missing from the War Department. They wanted Dreyfus to confess to having made copies, and so they boldly put that avowal into his alleged confession. But Capt. Lebrun-Renaud discomfits them utterly on this point. This is one of the signs that he is an honest man, if a bit stupid, and we suppose his testimony is explicable on the theory that he is telling what he believes to be the truth, but that he did not understand what Dreyfus was alluding to, and so muddled his words in reporting them. This, we infer, is Dreyfus's own explanation. He reproached Lebrun-Renaud, not as a deliberate falsifier, but as one who had failed in his duty to inquire the bearing of language he did not understand. Capt. Lebrun-Renaud's good faith in the whole business is also borne out by his steady refusal to say whether he thought Dreyfus's words tantamount to a confession of guilt. He doggedly said that he was only repeating words which he knew he had heard.

For full light on the mystery we have to go back to the original *interrogatoire* of Dreyfus on August 7. He was then cross-examined by Col. Jouaust in this very matter of the confession. What was the conversation he had with Lebrun-Renaud in the Cherche-Midi prison?

Dreyfus—This conversation was a monologue. I said to him, "I am innocent." I was conscious of the excited people outside to whom was to be shown a man who had committed the most abominable crime of which a soldier can be guilty. I understood the patriotic anguish which filled these people, and I wanted to cry out to them, "I am not the guilty man!" I added, "The Minister of War knows it." This had reference to what I had said to Lieut.-Col. du Paty de Clam when he came to see me. I had told him, "Say to the Minister that I am not guilty."

The President—Did you not say to Capt. Lebrun-Renaud, "The Minister knows that if I have delivered documents, they were of no importance, and it was only to get important ones in return?"

Dreyfus—I was recalling the conversation which I had had with Du Paty de Clam, and I said, "The Minister has sent to me Lieut.-Col. du Paty de Clam to ask if I did not deliver documents without importance in order to get some of importance."

The President—According to you, then, the words were those of Du Paty de Clam.

Now here we have material and a

plausible theory to cover the whole case, maintaining Dreyfus's innocence and honesty at the same time with the honesty of Capt. Lebrun-Renaud. The latter heard words of which he did not catch the import, and, putting them together stupidly, made out the extraordinary jumble which has passed for a confession of guilt. Dreyfus's simple and straightforward testimony clears up the whole puzzle and accounts for everything. But how do we know he is not lying? What evidence is there that Du Paty de Clam ever visited him and tried to extort a confession? Gen. Mercier himself furnishes it. In his deposition he read an official letter from Du Paty de Clam to himself as Minister of War which entirely confirms Dreyfus, and really gives the *coup de grâce* to this whole myth of a confession. Mercier read the letter for another purpose, and no one seems to have noticed how completely it makes an end of the alleged confession of Dreyfus.

In his deposition of August 11, Gen. Mercier admitted that he had been very anxious to get a confession from Dreyfus. So, he says (we translate from the stenographic report):

"I sent to him on December 31 Major [the title is so given] du Paty de Clam with orders to say to him that, his condemnation being plain and definitive, I could do nothing as respects that, but that the Government could still do something in the matter of his punishment; for example, by giving him his choice of place of deportation, or allowing him means of communication with his family—that the Government would show him some indulgence if, on his side, he would do something to show his penitence; and especially if he would tell the Minister of War what documents Germany had received through him."

There, if ever, was the opportunity of a confession, with indulgence promised. But what was the result? An official report from Du Paty de Clam, in which he said (we quote only the material parts):

"I have the honor to report that I have been nearly one hour in close conversation with Dreyfus. *He will not confess to anything*, declaring to me that above all he will not plead extenuating circumstances. . . . He hopes that within five or six years the matter will be cleared up, and that the enigma, which he cannot solve, will be explained. . . . *I regret not to have had better success in my undertaking.*"

What could be clearer? Secretly and formally urged by Mercier to confess, Dreyfus stoutly protested his innocence. Five days later, while again protesting his innocence, he referred to the approaches made to him, and the theories suggested to him by Du Paty de Clam, and was understood by thick-headed Lebrun-Renaud to have made Du Paty's language his own. Hence the trumpeted "confession," which turns out to be one of the easiest bubbles of the whole case to prick.

NO MORE ABANDONED FARMS.

The literature of summer has been noticeably wanting this year in disser-

tations on abandoned farms. In New England, where such farms have been most in evidence, the question has hardly been raised in the press. States which, two or three years ago, were issuing descriptive catalogues of deserted farms, and endeavoring, by systematic advertising, to bring tenants again to these once prosperous homes, seem not to have continued their efforts, or else to have incorporated their data in less prominent publications. Even at farmers' institutes and grange meetings, so far as reports of them have got into the newspapers, the familiar lament over the decay of New England agriculture has been chiefly conspicuous by its absence.

The reason for this is soon told. Discussion of abandoned farms has waned because that class of farms has now largely disappeared. One may travel far, through even the remote sections of New England, without finding any large number of farms which may properly be called deserted. The solution of what, at one time, seemed a serious problem has not, to be sure, been found in quite the way that many people expected. There has been no great "return to the country," and no large permanent addition to the farmer class from the ranks of those born and bred in cities and towns. That an abundance of cheap land, once the fact were known, would offset the attraction of great centres of population, has not been demonstrated. The abandoned farms of New England, once numerous and now infrequent, have been taken possession of by persons other than those who it was once hoped might flock to them. Some have been bought by wealthy and fashionable people, and turned into more or less elaborate summer places. Others have been taken up by professional men of limited means, drawn by the prospect of obtaining a vacation home at small expense. A good many have passed into the hands of owners of adjoining property, who have at last come to see that, other things being equal, a large farm is likely to be more profitable than a small one. Some have been acquired for the timber they bear, and a few have been bought for speculation. In one way or another, however, the list of abandoned farms has been greatly reduced, until in many sections the number is not greater than would be expected under normal conditions.

It is very apparent, however, that this change is none the less a revolution because quietly wrought. What the full effect is to be in the farming industry of New England, has yet to appear; but some of the results are already discernible. To begin with, the lazy, shiftless, and ignorant farmer, whose premises are an eye-sore to every passer-by, and whose dull effort returns but the most meagre existence, is being crowded out, and forced to seek a place better dis-

posed to tolerate him. Further, there is a distinct improvement in agricultural methods. The complaint of many old residents that the newcomers are only "summer people," and not bona-fide farmers, will not bear examination. As a matter of fact, an increasing number of the once-deserted farms are being cultivated and improved as never before. Modern buildings, labor-saving machinery, and scientific tillage are everywhere the order of the day. The grade and value of stock, especially cows, and the quality of orchards, are unquestionably improving. Many old farms now support fine herds of high-grade or registered cattle, and return their owners a substantial profit from the sale of butter and milk. A strong impetus has been given to the movement for good roads. Of "fancy" farming one sees, on the whole, very little, for the reason that most of the new business is carried on by men with small capital, who practise economy not only because they have to, but also because it pays. What one gathers is the impression that an ancient industry, long bound to traditional methods, is being reorganized on a basis of scientific knowledge and business principles.

Socially, too, the effects are beginning to show themselves. The presence in a community of one or two well-ordered farms, economically administered, has an unmistakable tendency to provoke discussion and, eventually, imitation. There is a multiplication of wants, with a higher standard of living as its inevitable result. General improvement of the appearance of things becomes at once desirable and expensive. It costs more to live because one needs more in order to be satisfied. It seems clear that this upward pull, exerted by the presence of an increased number of persons relatively well-to-do, must in the near future cause a sharp rise of wages, and at the same time drive to the wall the small farmer whose ability or resources will not allow him to keep up. Indeed, both of these processes are now actually going on. In many parts of New England, farm labor is more difficult to obtain, and commands a higher price, than was the case five years ago; while the farmer with no capital but his hands, and indisposed to adopt scientific methods, sees both the quality and the quantity of his product relatively declining; and his chances of profit growing less and less.

For New England, therefore, the disappearance of the abandoned farms means social transformation. The day of the "old-fashioned farmer," who lived upon what he raised, and sold only what he could not consume, is past, never to return. The farms of New England are being taken up more and more by men who, not wholly dependent upon them for their living, devote themselves to special crops, do their work by hired

labor, and are themselves, for considerable portions of the year, absentees. The demand for a country place is accompanied by the demand that that place shall pay for its keeping. That the process will eventually give us a type of alternating town and country life, akin to that prevailing in England, is by no means improbable, if, indeed, such a type is not already established. The resident farmer, on the other hand, has but two courses open to him, if he wishes to be assured a comfortable living. He may accept the new conditions and become himself a landed proprietor and agricultural *entrepreneur* on the new scale, or he may resign his independence and become a hired man. For there is going on quietly, in our day, a social and industrial change likely, before many years, to give the development of the farms of New England into the charge of men who themselves never swung a scythe or held a plough.

THE PLAGUE AND THE EUROPEAN.

NEW HAVEN, August 31, 1899.

The bubonic plague is in Oporto. The wonder is that it has not found lodgment in Europe before this. But now that it has come thus far, it may be useful to inquire whether its previous course warrants anxiety on the part of European and American officials.

From the more or less sensational accounts of the newspapers during the outbreak in India in 1896-'97, it seemed as if the plague had appeared suddenly and then swept with great rapidity over a wide area. Even were this the case, it must still be remembered that the swift spread of an infectious disease in a sub-tropical environment by no means implies a similar power of propagation in the Occident. But it is a mistake to suppose that the plague appeared suddenly in alarming strength, or that it extended itself with baffling haste through an unprepared population. Not only were the people well warned and in a state of anticipation (that they were not better prepared was their own fault) as the disease advanced from one outpost to another, but each step forward was taken so leisurely that it seemed rather as if the Great Death were reluctant to fulfil its obvious mission and hesitated as long as possible, until forced by the very apathy of its victims to do its work. It is true that when its strength was fed and its appetite aroused, it did not loiter in its task of destruction, but the appetite followed on the feeding, and the feed was, so to speak, thrust upon it.

To drop the native personification, the plague even in Bombay, or at its best, was at first not a serious matter, and would not have become so had not the sanitary conditions been unspeakably favorable, and the people inconceivably loath to adopt defensive tactics against it. The latter was, after all, the more powerful factor in favor of the plague, as was well shown at a later date when it entered Calcutta. For filthy as is Bombay (and the wards where the plague first appeared were the filthiest in the city), Calcutta is even worse. The latter has the finest modern buildings and the vilest slums of any city in India; but, by the time the plague arrived at the mouth of the Ganges,

it was met by European science, and routed by it, despite the opposition of the natives. The latter did what they could to oppose, not the plague, but the enlightened opposition to the plague offered by the "foreign tyrants," and that the death-list in Calcutta was so small is due entirely to the fact that the tyrants were in control.

In Bombay, not only were the natives in control for more than six months after the plague appeared, but they had pecuniary interests which went far to make them more apathetic than they are by nature in the face of "God-sent" calamity. To be plain, municipal affairs are in the hands of the City Council, and the City Council numbered many native fathers of the town, who owned and drew heavy rents from the very buildings which fostered the plague. The suggestion that some of the worst of these buildings should be destroyed was naturally opposed, but no less hostile were the worthy fathers to the demand of their few European colleagues that these houses should be made decent or at least be disinfected—for such a procedure would have driven away tenants and reduced rents. It was much better to let the tenants die, for then new ones would come in at once, whereas if the huge caravanseries in which live the lower classes were renovated or disinfected, prospective tenants would be scared away. No one wants to live in a house which has been infested with European magic-powder or in one liable to receive visits from European doctors.

Thus from the outset the plague was hidden, fostered, and encouraged. It began with a few victims, and had they been isolated at once it could never have spread. Instead of this, long after it had slowly gained strength in Mandvie Ward, where it originated, sick patients were whipped away at dead of night and hidden in the next district to infect an environment equally susceptible to disease on account of its equal filth and physical weakness. It is, in fact, an historical incident of no little importance in estimating the growth of the plague that Kamatipur Ward, which stands next to Mandvie Ward in point of filth and density of population of the lowest class, was deliberately infected in this manner. The plague had been confined to a few blocks, not because it had been encountered or hedged in, but because it spread very slowly, when a lad sick with plague was stealthily taken out of the filthy nest in which he was dying and packed off to Kamatipur. In three days the plague broke out in the latter ward, and so it was, as far as could be traced, in each advance of the disease. For whether the plague is contagious or infectious may still be disputed, but there is no doubt that, given the right soil, the seed springs up when carried from one place to another by the human dirt in which it breeds.

In June, 1897, I wrote in a paper, published that same summer in the *Forum*, that the plague had been exterminated through the energetic action of Gen. Gatacre. And so it had. For a fortnight there were no cases in Bombay. But then succeeded cholera and, worse than this debilitating stroke, the inevitable result of renouncing all precautionary measures. That the plague reappeared again and has been in Bombay ever since, is due simply to the fact that one inefficient committee after another has fooled with the disease. But, above all,

and most careless and sinful, when the plague-infected residents who had escaped from the city began to return, no efficient means was taken to prevent their bringing back the plague. This is the sole secret of the long continuance of the disease. Two months after it was discovered, it was "under control"—result, discontinuance of precautionary measures, and recrudescence of plague. Six months after this (under European management) it was stamped out—result, again discontinuance of precautionary measures, with revival of the disease, Gen. Gatacre sent to Egypt, the natives again in command of the town, and the town still in command of the plague.

But while it is evident from a study of the growth of the plague in Bombay that it can be headed off and stamped out, it must further be remembered that Bombay natives are not Europeans. Dirty as are southern Europeans, neither they nor their homes can compare with the lowest Hindus and Mohammedans of Bombay. There the plague had its best soil; in Europe or America, the conditions of climate and habit are such as to preclude the possibility of the plague making much headway if met at once by rational methods of defence. Irresponsible papers report that the plague has reached Oporto direct from India, possibly through infected hides! Both these statements are false on the face of them. No merchandise communicates the plague. This has been shown repeatedly, notably in the Marseilles plague. Further, hides "infected" (implying that the animals were sick) are an impossibility. The only animals affected by the plague are men, rats, and pigs. But, above all, there is not a case known where, even in human subjects, the plague germ has taken over twelve days to develop, and a longer time than this is required to come from India to Oporto. Unless, therefore, a plague patient was allowed to leave India, and gave the disease to another *en voyage*, the tale of direct importation is a fable. It was perhaps introduced from Egypt, where it is now mildly active.

The lesson for us to learn is that no very long quarantine need be established against the plague, and especially that even if it finds entrance into the country there is not the slightest reason to be afraid of it. And here the difference between Oriental and Occidental susceptibility to plague is most reassuring. Even the Bombay papers published accounts of deaths of Europeans; but those familiar with social conditions in India know that the half-breeds, Eurasians, always call themselves Europeans. Now the Eurasians died of plague like natives, but their families had the death reported as "European," especially if name and place were given. This was matter of common talk in Bombay, and indeed it was impossible that real Europeans should be confused with Eurasians in so small a society. It was in fact not till January, 1897, that any European died of plague, and he was a doctor who had not only been in constant attendance on plague patients for four months, but had, the day before he was stricken, neglected to dress an open cut on his finger. After this there were a few deaths among the hospital nurses and Italian sailors, who were in continual contact with plague patients. The ordinary European went about his daily business and even joined unharmed the soldiers

called out to help "inspect," that is, visit, the very haunts of the plague. Even in India a sufficiency of good food and daily baths were prophylactic. In the case of those unable to eat and bathe enough, as in the slums, immediate isolation and disinfection were all that was required, till, through the stupidity of the municipality, discipline was abandoned and the Great Death was invited to make itself at home. WASHBURN HOPKINS.

MEMOIRS OF MME. DE LA FERRONAYS. —III.

PARIS, August 23, 1899.

Madame de la Ferronays enters with some detail into the life of the Count and Countess de Chambord, which will be found interesting, even by those who are unable to read the memoirs of Dangeau. We learn in her book that "Monseigneur detested all public demonstrations of piety, and would not bear, in any other affairs than those which interest the conscience, the intervention of priests, any more than of women." In this last respect, he tried, probably, to differ from some of his most famous ancestors; but could anybody affirm that the Countess de Chambord had no influence over him, and that she did not use it, sometimes, to the detriment of his best interests? Speaking of Madame de C—, who was lady to the Countess, Madame de la Ferronays says:

"She was goodness itself, but also a nullity — the kind of woman that suited the Count de Chambord, who feared very much having in his house persons whose intelligence might incline them, by their necessary relations to Madame, to politics. . . . Monseigneur, besides, was very *autoritaire*, and I laughed inwardly when I heard good *ultras* express the fear lest, once in France, he should show himself too liberal. Nobody was less so than he. In the event of his restoration, he thought of organizing in France departmental assemblies to which would be attributed larger powers than those of our present councils-general, for the promotion of decentralization. All his sympathies were with the provinces and provincial people; he feared Paris, a little like Louis XIV., who kept a bitter memory of the day when, at the beginning of the Fronde, it was found necessary to take him out of it. The Count's confidants knew his views on this subject, and the secret of it was well kept."

Madame de la Ferronays, on leaving Frohsdorf, once made the tour of the Ottoman Empire. She tells us that she visited the harem of Khamil Bey, whose function it was to introduce the Ambassadors. The wife of Khamil asked her what she should think if her husband had several wives in his house. "I answered, to her great astonishment, that there was such a difference between Mussulmans and Christians that the latter had a different house for each wife." Perhaps Madame Khamil did not quite understand this answer.

Among the Senators of the new Empire were two Legitimists, the Marquis de la Rochejaquelein and the Marquis de Pastoret. The name of the first, and the favor with which the second was regarded by the Count de Chambord, rendered these desertions odious. The indignation with which they were received arrested on the slope those who might have been tempted to descend to the bottom. A Senatorship was offered to M. de la Ferronays, or, rather, to his wife; but it was refused, though 30,000 francs a year

would have been convenient to a young "ménage à la portion congrue."

The Emperor's marriage to the Countess of Teba was celebrated with much pomp:

"We saw reappear the chamberlains in red uniforms, the ladies of the new Empress in grand court dress—all a novelty to our generation. The new sovereign, in the midst of all her splendor, was often bored. She had never loved the Emperor, and her heart remained faithful to the Marquis of A—, who had once been betrothed to her. On rainy days, in her idleness, the ladies of her household said, without blushing, that she took them to the rooms where her numerous wardrobes were kept, and that when she showed her gowns she gave them one after another those which pleased them most; it was transforming them into ordinary maids."

In 1861 the Duchess de Berry fell into great financial difficulties.

"The Princess, ignorant, like all the women of her rank, in money matters, had signed, without understanding their import, papers which involved her, and the Austrian law is, or at any rate was then, very severe. Even the Princes of the imperial family did not escape its application. The emotion and the fears of Monseigneur were terrible; to find immediately three millions was not easy. My husband had the idea of making an appeal to the royalist ladies, asking them to receive, each in the country which they inhabited, subscriptions for five years. This work, founded under the name of Maria Theresa, prospered, and was of great help."

The generous Duke de Luynes immediately sent half a million francs, and he would never accept repayment.

The Count de Chambord's sister, the Duchess of Parma, had been very unfortunately married. Her husband was assassinated on the ramparts of Parma. Carried to a mean house in the neighborhood, he had time to send for his wife, and to revoke publicly the will in which he had made Ward the tutor of his children and the regent of the duchy during their minority. The Duchess dismissed Ward, but she did not keep the regency long, as the duchy was annexed to the kingdom of Sardinia. She took refuge in Switzerland when she was forced to leave Parma, and fell very ill on her way to Venice, where she joined her brother. She died there, leaving to the Count de Chambord all the care of four very young children. "In the royalist party," says Madame de la Ferronays, "the death of the Duchess of Parma was keenly felt, and I have always thought that, if the life of this very intelligent princess had been prolonged, she would, in decisive moments, have exercised a happy influence on Monseigneur."

M. de la Ferronays died in 1866 at Frohsdorf, which had become the ordinary residence of the Count de Chambord after the annexation of Venice to the kingdom of Italy. Mme. de la Ferronays has since remained chiefly in France, and many are the anecdotes which she has to tell about the imperial court. She only occasionally made the pilgrimage to Frohsdorf. The marriage of the Princess Marguerite, daughter of the Duchess of Parma, to Don Carlos, Duke of Madrid, a niece of the Countess de Chambord, was long opposed by the Count, but took place in the end, as it was desired by the Countess de Chambord. The young Duchess of Madrid had always lived apart from the world, and at Grätz, Mme. de la Ferronays remained some time with her, and initiated her, undoubtedly into many things of which she was ignorant. "The Duke of Madrid was already occupied with the preparation

of the insurrection which he was on the point of provoking in the north of Spain, and in which his brother, Don Alfonso, was of such help to him." Grätz is in the neighborhood of the castle of Brunsee, where lived the Duchess de Berry. Madame, as she was called, was an invalid, and lived with one of her daughters.

"Her daughters were all three married, and the second, a widow, contracted an alliance very inferior to what her birth gave her a right to, and which displeased her family, by whom the name of Madame Conti (whom I never saw) was seldom pronounced. It seemed as if Madame felt that she found in me one of the last occasions which life gave her of speaking about France. She put endless questions to me concerning this country, for ever dear to the great race of the Bourbons, which will always be its incarnation. She asked to be informed as to all those whom she had known, what they were doing, what had become of them."

When the civil war was on the point of breaking up in Spain, the Duchess of Madrid came to Paris, and stayed with Madame de la Ferronays, sending her to Italy with dispatches for Don Alfonso, who was then an officer in the regiment of the Pontifical Zouaves, and for Cardinal Antonelli. Madame Craven, the sister-in-law of Madame de la Ferronays, was living at the time in Italy, at Castagneto, near Salerno.

In the winter of 1869 Madame de la Ferronays began to open her salon, where she received all the society of the Faubourg, St. Germain, which was still very exclusive, and all the distinguished foreigners. She speaks with much freedom of certain persons who much engaged public attention at the time, and among others of M. Thiers, who had become the head of the Opposition in the Chamber. The war with Germany was approaching.

"The state of health of the Emperor, whom death had already in his grasp, may be his excuse before history, and one feels some pity in thinking of what, morally and physically, he suffered during the year which has justly been called 'l'année terrible.' His state of health, well known to the Empress, was the cause of her desire for a declaration of war. She had no doubt that the war would be a succession of victories, and that, under the protection of a victorious army, in the event of the Emperor's death, she would become the regent of her son. Without her intervention, some of our great disasters and their fatal consequences would have been spared us. It was she who turned towards Sedan the army of MacMahon marching on Paris."

During the war Mme. de la Ferronays remained in Paris. Her son was in a regiment of cuirassiers; she herself became a member of a committee of ladies, formed on behalf of the wounded. As president of the work of Maria Theresa, she had entered into relations with many persons who could be useful under the circumstances. The committee met at the Palace of Industry (now demolished in order to give place to the new palaces for the Exposition of 1900). The part of the memoirs relating to the war and to the long siege of Paris is highly interesting. Mme. de la Ferronays did a very noble work in taking constant care of the wounded; her energetic character supported her in this great crisis, as well as the consciousness of the good she was doing. After the capitulation of Paris, she left France in order to see her son, who was a prisoner in Germany. On her way back, she stopped at Geneva, where the Count de Chambord was established with his wife. The Count took leave of her in

these terms: "Au revoir, in France. You have too long been visiting us; it is for us now to return your visits, and, but for M. Thiers, this would already have been done." "My illusions," says she, "regarding this fatal man, made me long keep secret these words, the last that the Prince addressed to me."

The latter part of the memoirs touches the negotiations which preceded the reconciliation of the two branches of the royal family, the attempts made to establish the monarchy which were frustrated by the refusal of the Count de Chambord to accept the tricolor flag, and by interesting particulars of the last moments of the Count de Chambord.

Correspondence.

A FRESH FIELD FOR ANNEXATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As the next step in our career of expansion, I suggest the immediate occupation of the island of Tierra del Fuego.

The advantages of such a course must be obvious to every patriotic mind. In the first place, the island is the undoubted key to the South Pole. This in itself should be sufficient. In days like these, when every nation endeavors to get as many "keys," real or supposed, as a stage-jailer in a melodrama, every American worthy of the name ought to desire such a superb addition to our own national key-ring.

The strategic advantages of the occupation would, of course, be enormous. Suppose that a hostile fleet, dispatched against our beloved land, should attempt to sail around South America. In this highly probable event, we could either bombard the miscreants from Cape Horn, or overwhelm them in the Straits of Magellan. Should further aid be required, a treaty *à la* Sulu could be negotiated with the leading Patagonians, the ladies of whose families are no doubt just as extravagant as their Sulu sisters. It is generally understood that the object of the Sultan of Sulu, in treating with the United States, was to obtain the means of supporting his harem; and who knows but that a few glass beads or bottles of hair-dye (judiciously applied to Patagonian heads) might lay the foundation of a treaty of incalculable value to the United States? To give an impoverished chieftain the means of indulging a set of extravagant chieftainesses is an excellent way to get concessions from the chieftain—and it would be just as valuable near the South Pole as near the Equator. While Uncle Sam, from his habits and traditions, may be rather new to this sort of business, yet it is to be hoped that the old gentleman will lay aside his coyness, and follow the Sulu precedent in every similar case, thus showing his profound knowledge of the springs of human nature.

It is also extremely likely that if we do not take the island, some other fellow will. This, as we know, is always a reason for our seizing territory, whether we need it or not. And the difference, in point of morality, between our "occupying" land, and somebody else's "grabbing" it, is as apparent in this case as in that of Hawaii or the Philippines.

By occupying the island, we should also renew our acquaintance with our old friend

the Monroe Doctrine, of whom we heard so much in dear old Venezuelan days, but with whom, since our Philippine achievements, we have, for some mysterious reason, been rather less intimate.

I am prepared, of course, to hear that there are traitors who would oppose the occupation. At all such I hurl defiance (in advance). To every true American heart (and to such alone do I appeal) the advantages of the plan I have suggested must seem beyond dispute.

DANIEL HOLSMAN.

No. 505 CHESTNUT STREET,
PHILADELPHIA, August 28, 1899.

McKINLEY'S PLAUSIBLE COLOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your remarks upon Mr. McKinley in the *Nation* of August 24 remind me of some words of Plutarch's about Cæsar and Pompey: "If they must have indulged their thirst of victories and triumphs, the Parthians and Germans were yet to be subdued; Scythia and India yet remained, together with a very plausible color for their lust of new acquisitions, the pretence of civilizing barbarians."

A. B. H.

WENTZVILLE, Mo., August 27, 1899.

A SLAVE-BURNING ON BOSTON COMMON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In John Fiske's 'Old Virginia and her Neighbors,' published last year, several colonial burnings-alive are mentioned (ii., 265). These instances were in Virginia, South Carolina, New York, and one of them in Massachusetts. These are "cited as especially notable." "There may have been others," the author adds, speaking of these colonies in general; but he seems to have known of no second case in Massachusetts, for he says elsewhere: "There is one instance of such an execution in Massachusetts" (ii., p. 330), though his wish there was to extenuate nothing of the ghastly roll. Another instance, however, which escaped his eye, usually inevitable, he will recognize as "especially notable," like those he chronicles. Its scene was Boston itself; it was the earliest of its class in New England, and, after lying hid longer than the *Mayflower* Log, it has only recently come to light. What was it?

There is an old tradition in my family that J. B., an ancestor born at Boston in 1665, would never eat roast pork, and gave as the reason for his dislike that its odor brought back to him a sickening whiff of wind from a woman he had seen burned alive at the stake on the Common when he was a 'prentice boy. This story I heard in the twenties—perhaps as early as 1820—at the table of my father, who in 1770 was old enough to have heard and understood it, if told by his grandfather, whose birth was 1713, and who was himself a grandson of J. B., the original eye-witness of the tragedy on the Common. Our family has never ceased to reside in Boston, and nothing breaks the continuity of the tale. The first eating of spare-rib must, season by season, have brought to mind the ancestral antipathy to that delicacy, and kept it as familiar in table talk as any household word. No link in the traditionary chain appeared likely to be forged or distorted. Yet, or rather therefore, I early began search for documentary or contemporary confirmations of what was after all demonstrated but thin-

ly. In turning over many volumes my quest was fruitless. Winsor's four elephantine octavos, which it would seem must have picked up every grain of wheat and tares in Boston annals, yielded me nothing.

So I began to waver in my faith as to the objective reality of the tragedy which our home circle had shuddered over for generations. Still, there was a kind of credence in my heart for testimony which had so long walked hand in hand with the records downward from 1713 in the folio Bible before my eyes and bequeathed down from many an ancestor. But full assurance did not come to me from without till after 1860, though it might have reached me sooner, and its actual coming was welcome.

In 1858 the only surviving child of Jeremy Belknap presented her father's papers to the Massachusetts Historical Society. A committee appointed to examine them found numerous manuscript extracts which had been copied by Belknap from a diary of Cotton Mather, which had been long supposed to have perished. The last of the extracts which they printed ran thus (Mass. Hist. Soc. Proceedings 1855-8, p. 320):

"1681, Sept. 22. A negro woman who burnt two houses in Roxbury, July 12, in one of which a child was burnt to death, was executed in Boston. She was burnt to death—the first that has suffered such a death in New England."

The 'prentice boy, J. B., who stood by this burning at the stake, was sixteen in the previous month.

The moral is, that genealogists will do well not to be neglectful of family traditions. They are clues out of many a labyrinth.

J. D. B.

August, 1899.

PIAZZA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Matthews's letter on "Piazza" in No. 1770 of the *Nation*, which I have just seen, reminds me that while I have never heard the pronunciation "P-H" which he mentions, yet forty years ago it was quite common to hear "pe-ayze" (accent on second syllable) in the country districts of Pennsylvania and New Jersey. The thing itself, as a covered veranda extending the full length of one or more sides of the house, was then supplanting the mere porch or stoop over the front door, and perhaps the pronunciation "pe-ayze" was a survival of the English "P-H." The tendency in the same country districts now is to call it a "py-azza," with a long *i* and the accent on the first syllable.

J. T. M.

PHILADELPHIA, August 31, 1899.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co.'s preliminary fall announcements include the fifth volume of McMaster's 'History of the People of the United States'; 'A History of American Privateers,' by Edgar Stanton Maclay; 'Reminiscences of a Very Old Man,' 1808-1897, by the late John Sartain; 'The Principles of Taxation,' by the late David A. Wells; 'Oom Paul's People,' by Howard C. Hillegas; 'Russian Literature,' by K. Waliszewski; 'The Comparative Physiology and Morphology of Animals,' by Prof. Joseph Le Conte; 'Evolution of Atrophy,' by Jean Demoor and others; 'The Log of a Sea-Waif,' by Frank

T. Bullen; 'The International Geography,' by Nansen, Markham, Bryce, Davis, and others; 'Britain and the North Atlantic,' by H. J. Mackinder; 'Scandinavia and the Arctic Ocean,' by Sir C. R. Markham; 'The King's Mirror,' by Anthony Hope; 'Mammon & Co.,' by Edward F. Benson; and 'Some Women I have Known,' by Maarten Maartens.

Henry Holt & Co. will soon publish the 'Life of Dean Liddell,' by Henry L. Thompson, Vicar of St. Mary's, Oxford, with illustrations, some after the Dean's own drawings.

'The Circle of a Century' is the title of a new novel by Mrs. Burton Harrison about to be issued by the Century Co., along with a new edition of her 'Anglomaniacs,' with illustrations by Dana Gibson.

'The Lion and the Unicorn,' short stories by Richard Harding Davis, will shortly be issued by the Scribners.

Victor Hugo's Memoirs, translated by John W. Harding, will be published in this country by G. W. Dillingham Co., who also announce 'The Funny Side of Politics,' by George S. Hilton.

R. H. Russell's fall announcements include 'The Kings' Lyrics,' poems of the time of James I. and Charles I., gathered together by Fitz Roy Carrington; 'Animal Jokes,' comic drawings by Mary Baker-Baker; and a portfolio of drawings by the German artist C. W. Allers.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, announce a new volume by Mrs. Latimer, 'Judea, from Cyrus to Titus.'

Prof. J. Mark Baldwin of Princeton is about to sail for England to see through the press the 'Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology.'

The Rev. E. B. Parsons, Secretary (at Williamstown, Mass.) of the United Chapters of the Phi Beta Kappa fraternity, is preparing a catalogue, one line to a name, of the members, with a brief history, the constitution, list of officers, and a select obituary.

'The Publishers' Trade-List Annual' for 1899 appears in unshrunk proportions from the office of the *Publishers' Weekly*. These united catalogues are, as we have more than once remarked, of value to the ordinary purchaser as well as to the trade.

From Macmillan Co. we have volumes vi. and vii. in the acceptable Eversley Edition of Shakspeare's works edited by Prof. Herford, open in its typography and externally in simple good taste; and volume xii., still not the last, of Constance Garnett's direct translation of Turgenieff's novels, 'The Diary of a Superfluous Man, and Other Stories.'

In 'Webster's Collegiate Dictionary' (Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam Co.), we have the latest and largest in the ascending scale of abridgments of the 'International Dictionary.' It is a full-bodied octavo of more than eleven hundred pages, in double columns for the vocabulary, which is reinforced by the customary introductions on pronunciation and orthography, and appendixes, consisting of a (new) pronouncing glossary of Scottish words and phrases, a vocabulary of rhymes, one of proper names, one of English Christian names, a summary view of classical mythology, a dictionary of foreign and classical quotations, etc., etc., and the usual supply of helpful illustrations. The greater fulness of the vocabulary selected corresponds to the higher grade in years and intelligence of the class aimed at; and

that a much wider class will here find their daily requirements more than met, is past question. The plan and merits of Webster are too well known to need dwelling on. The etymologies are conditioned by the progress of the Oxford Dictionary, say as far as the letter G. The print is small (testifying to the inclusiveness of the work), but as clear as may be. In short, the new Webster will commend itself.

'The Duchess of Nona: A Complete Novel,' by Maurice Hewlett, which appears in *Lippincott's Magazine* for September, is the same story which was published in the *Fortnightly Review* for July and August, under the title "Anima Semplicetta; or, The Duchess of Nona." No intimation is given that the story has already appeared in another magazine under a different title.

The *Library Journal* for August points out that, "since January 1, Mr. Andrew Carnegie has given the sum of \$2,450,000 for the establishment or development of American libraries" in all parts of the country, leaving out of the reckoning all sums below \$50,000. More than a half of the above total went to increasing his great Pittsburgh foundation. The bestowal of \$50,000 on Fort Worth, Texas, for a library building, led to a mass meeting called by the Mayor, who exhorted citizens to come out with "horns, drums, bells, musical instruments, and any and everything that will make a noise."

A writer in a recent number of the Berlin *National-Zeitung* has an interesting description of the Körner Museum at Dresden. In the course of it he cites some particularly bloodthirsty stanzas from an unpublished "Song of Vengeance," ending with a holocaust of the French invaders of the Fatherland—

"Damit kein Grab das deutsche Land vergifte
Mit überheinschem Aas!"

This poem was committed to the pocket blankbook presented to Körner by Frau Henriette von Pereira-Arnstein as he was about to take the field. The book, stained with the patriot's blood even to the very page of the famous "Prayer before the Battle," is now in the Museum, after a curious fate. Returned to the donor by Körner's mother, it was by the former given on request to the "philanthropic" Austrian Duke Maximilian, who carried it with him on his imperial invasion of Mexico. This is as if the original manuscript of Washington's Farewell Address or the Declaration of Independence should return to America by way of—General Otis and Manila!

The day after the murderous attack upon M. Labori, the lawyer of Dreyfus, the *Journal des Débats* had an impressive article on the old text, that lawlessness and sedition may not long with impunity be preached to the masses by an unprincipled press. The utter depravity of the Parisian journalists of the lower class, the abomination of their daily volleys of abuse against government, law, and justice, is—we say it with profound gratitude—unequalled by the worst performances of any newspapers in this country. And the same senseless abuse (not criticism) of the powers that be, which, with nauseating monotony, fills the columns of the cheap evening papers, the same incriminating names applied to the highest dignitaries of state and the courts, are echoed aloud without shame or reserve, mingled with the sacred words of *patrie*, *peuple*, etc., etc., by vulgar lips in cafés and other places of public resort. It is the conviction of many who

love liberty and pity France that what the unfortunate country needs first of all is some restriction of the license of the press. "This pistol shot," says the *Journal des Débats*, "will not be the last one, and this sad affair [of Dreyfus] will end in civil war, if respect and silence before the law be not observed by all, or, if need be, enforced on all, to whatever party or faction they may belong, and if violence, hatred, contempt of justice and law, all the fanatic, anarchical, homicidal passions, continue to poison the air we breathe."

During the summer semester of 1899 just closed, the number of women in attendance at the German universities was 355, namely: Berlin 179, Bonn 45, Breslau 27, Erlangen 4, Göttingen 29, Halle 19, Heidelberg 13, Kiel 8, Königsberg 20, Würzburg 11. The absence of female students from Munich is conspicuous. We may add that the University of Strassburg has just decided to admit women to its courses of study on the same conditions as men. Hitherto this institution has been most obstinate in resisting the innovation. There is now no German university in which women may not pursue their studies.

The price paid by Germany for the Caroline Islands does not seem so extravagant after all, when one reads the Government's memorandum concerning the islands to the Reichstag, published, together with a map of the German possessions in the Pacific, by Dietrich Reimer (Berlin). The map shows the steamship lines projected by the North German Lloyd and by the Jaluit Company of Hamburg, which latter is already in possession of factories in all the more important islands of the Caroline, Pelew, and Marshall groups, and contemplates founding colonial settlements in several places best adapted for plantations of coco and sago palms, tobacco, and coffee. Three-fourths of the exports of copra, not very extensive, so far, and mostly in exchange for German products, is being handled by this company. The climate of the Carolines, the memorandum states, is almost entirely free from fever and greatly tempered by ocean breezes; the islands abound in well-protected harbors with sweet-water streams. The new steamship lines will make regular connections with Sydney, and thus include the newly acquired possessions in the Australian network of trade.

Among the maps published by Carl Flemming (Glogau) is a good up-to-date map of Africa (eighteenth edition) by A. Herrich, sold, like most of the series, at the low price of one mark. The scale is 1:14,500,000, making a sheet about thirty inches square.

An English expedition, which left Berbera on the Gulf of Aden in November last for hunting and exploration in Abyssinia, has just returned to England from Cairo. Its route lay through Somaliland to Harar, and from thence to Adis Abeba, the Abyssinian capital. The only sign of civilization, by the way, says one of the expedition in an interview reported in the *London Times*, was the telephone running between these two places, a distance of about 300 miles. "The stations, which are about two days' march apart, are mere thatched huts surrounded by strong high stockades. The dirty Eastern hut, with its Abyssinian attendant, affords a striking contrast with the telephone and the instructions to 'Ring up Adis Abeba.'" The line was constructed by a Franco-Russian company in which Manelek is a shareholder. Among the numerous evidences of the ac-

tivity of these two nationalities in the empire are a large hospital and medical establishment at the capital with five or six Russian doctors and a staff of dispensers. But British prestige is very high at present, Menelik having been much impressed by the Fashoda incident. Not only were there no difficulties put in the way of the expedition, but permission was given to travel in parts of the country in which no white man had ever been. Leaving the capital, it proceeded in a northwesterly direction through a region full of elephants and lions, and everywhere bearing evidences of Abyssinian raids. Crossing the frontier, it entered an unexplored country inhabited by people of a negro type and ruled by an Arab. From thence the expedition reached the Blue Nile, and descended the river to Khartum and Cairo.

Even at the risk of carrying coals to Newcastle, we would call the attention of students of sociology to the excellent services rendered by the Musée Social of Paris. This institution was founded a few years ago through the liberality of the Count de Chambun, and is now every year giving upwards of a thousand consultations, oral or in writing, and always gratuitously, on any question pertaining to the material and moral improvement of the laboring classes. Questions of a general and familiar nature are immediately answered by the Secretary, but new questions and those requiring the assistance of specialists are referred for study to one of the sections of the Musée and answered after due investigation. All inquiries should be addressed to M. le Directeur du Musée Social, 5 rue Las-Cases, Paris, where a carefully selected library of some 15,000 volumes, and files of several hundred periodicals in different languages, are always at the disposal of the public.

The death of Robert Clarke of Cincinnati on August 26 removes a conspicuous and honored member of the book-publishing fraternity in this country. He was at first a seller, then a publisher and editor of books, while he amassed a private library exceptionally rich in Americana, which has happily come into the possession of the University of Cincinnati. Mr. Clarke was but seventy years old, having been born in Scotland in 1829. For nearly sixty years his home had been in the city by the Ohio. His services to American history (and particularly that of the Ohio Valley) as student, publisher, and collector will be long remembered, but, as he never married, he leaves no posterity to perpetuate his name.

—The *Century* for September is a "Salt-Water Number"—in a general sense apropos of the international interest in the yacht races for the America's cup. A thoroughly delightful contribution is Capt. Joshua Slocum's, first of four papers which are to describe his circumnavigation of the globe alone in a forty-foot sloop. The present instalment takes him from Buzzard's Bay to Gibraltar and thence to Pernambuco. It is immensely interesting, yet no more so than Bullen's "Way of a Ship" (after Solomon), which is an account of sundry ships he has sailed in and of their good and naughty ways of behavior, as full of charms and caprices as a dance of children. Another article of prominent interest is Robert S. Rantoul's "Voyage of the *Quero*," a true story of how Capt. John Derby of Salem took to England the news of the fight at Concord. Papers full of every degree of saltiness—on lessening danger for them that go down to the

sea in liners, on Chinese piracy, on the shifting of dates as one goes East and West, on Winslow Homer's sea paintings, on a Jewish-American naval officer of the early years of the century, whose life was made a burden to him for purely anti-Dreyfusard reasons. Even Alexander the Great in this number finds himself sailing towards the sea, his conquests in India ended; while the ever-obliging Franklin, in his character of scientist, absents him from lightning and stoves awhile to study the Gulf Stream from the observations of a Nantucket sea-captain. Mrs. Van Rensselaer writes a particularly agreeable account of the Cathedral of Le Puy. Perched on its rocky peak in the "recklessly improbable and pictorial city of Le Puy," it lends the value of contrast to the briny tang of the magazine, whose salt swash somehow sets one to thinking of the sea-officer who, on his holidays, always went inland and visited an agricultural fair.

—In *Scribner's* for September Mr. W. C. Brownell has a notable appreciation of Mr. George Butler's painting, with some attractive reproductions from the artist's work. Butler's portraits, he says, "seem the painting of his idea of the subject in its suggestive, stimulating, rectifying presence"; and this artist "sees things in color, evidently, which is very different from seeing color in things." Epigram, however, is the least merit of the paper. An interesting article on and from the Canadian Wilderness, by Frederic Irland, carries the reader into a woody and lakeful distance compared with which the ordinary camping ground is civic. Stevenson's letters now date from the Adirondacks in winter, whence, in his always fascinating style, he denounces the climate as "harsh, grey, glum, doleful," and shoots out the lip at Henry James for the over-use of "immense" and "tremendous." Contemporary interest chiefly attaches to Robert Grant's "Search-Light Letter to a Political Optimist," which saddles our public troubles on the average American voter, the good fellow who cannot afford to be too particular, but leaves that to the reformers. To "strengthen the moral purpose of the plain people" is the remedy without which it is vain to abolish dishonesty in high places. This paper should be made into an election tract.

—Pendant would appropriately be J. W. Martin's article in *Harper's*, "A Cure for City Corruption," which talks instructively of Municipal Self-Government. London, Birmingham, Glasgow, and the dawning day in Boston point the moral and the way. The most humorous feature in Mark Twain's creditable pages "Concerning the Jews" is his advice to them to "organize" in American fashion. Dr. Henry Smith Williams contributes a clear and well-packed history of "The Century's Progress in Experimental Psychology." Dr. Wyeth rallies again to the glorification of Gen. N. B. Forrest, and will, we fancy, have to reckon with criticism in declaring that the massacre at Fort Pillow was no massacre but fair fighting; that there was no real violation of the truce, although "to a certain extent both the Federal and Confederate commanders disregarded the strict obligations" of the "white flag"; that "a large majority of the negroes" within the fort, and many of the whites, having had free access to liquor, were "under the demoralizing influence of this intoxicant"; and that "no cruelties were practised by Forrest's

men upon any prisoners, wounded or unwounded." The expansionist lesson for the month is delivered by Chalmers Roberts, who holds up the familiar object-lesson of Egypt under the British occupation.

—Prof. C. W. Colby's 'Selections from the Sources of English History' (Longmans) is, we believe, the first attempt to present, in a single volume of moderate size, representative excerpts from contemporary sources illustrative of the history of England. Selection is so much a matter of individual judgment, and, in the case of student manuals, is likely to depend so much upon the compiler's own way of presenting a subject to his classes, that no two authorities would agree as to just what should or should not be included in a book of this character. Prof. Colby's work, however, has been conscientiously done, and his decisions offer few occasions for other than captious criticism. To compress into a volume of three hundred pages, however, one hundred and seventeen selections, chosen from a period of eighteen hundred years, is, of course, to make a book adapted to elementary instruction only; and the editor tells us that he has been careful "to keep both passages and comment within the compass of boys sixteen years old." With this object in view, statutes and constitutional documents have been, in general, excluded, the extracts consisting mainly of narrative and descriptive pieces illustrating the course of political events or the social and industrial life of the people. A loosely written introduction deals with sources and their use; and there are brief introductions to the various selections. The arrangement is chronological rather than topical; the work, therefore, develops no special thesis and emphasizes no particular phase of the subject. Where, however, as in the United States, English history is generally taught, outside of the universities, in comprehensive courses extending over a year or less, the use of such a volume as this, in connection with the narrative textbook, cannot fail to enliven and vitalize the study and give to leading episodes something of human interest. The book is certainly to be commended to teachers.

—Prof. A. B. Hart's 'Source-Book of American History' (Macmillan) suggests a boiling down of the same editor's unfinished 'American History Told by Contemporaries.' The present volume has the characteristics already familiar in the larger work—a logical analysis of the subject, well-chosen selections, rigorous devotion to reprints *verbatim et literatim*, and elaborate introductions (in this instance by two hands besides the compiler's) on the use of the book. The result is a manual which every teacher of American history ought to know, and which every school-boy ought to read. In the more limited extent of the period with which he deals, Prof. Hart has the advantage of Prof. Colby; mechanically, too, his book is better made. Like Prof. Colby, however, he eschews "documents," and culls from letters, pamphlets, colonial records, and the like, rather than from the statute-book. Prof. Hart is nothing if not up to date; we are not surprised, therefore, to find the 'Source-Book,' which begins with Columbus's letter to Sanchez on the discovery of the New World, ending with extracts from Roosevelt's 'Rough Riders' and President McKinley's last annual message. We question the entire wisdom of insisting

as strenuously as does Prof. Hart, on the special virtue of an exact reproduction of archaic typography, spelling, and abbreviations, especially in works intended for elementary instruction. Such devotion to the old manner is very likely to fix the attention of young people on the form rather than the substance of the past, and perpetuate the mischievous notion that our ancestors were curious people, and not flesh and blood men and women like ourselves. Surely antiquarianism and historical accuracy are not quite the same thing; and, unless form is more than substance, Prof. Hart wholly misses the point in saying sententiously, as he does in his preface, that "to reduce the quaint and wandering sentences of our ancestors to order would be like putting Cotton Mather into the silk hat and plain black coat of modern society." Moreover, we think an editor ought to be consistent, and not, for example, replace the old long s with the modern form—and without saying anything about it, either. Still, this is a minor matter, of course, and will not seriously detract from the worth of one of the most useful historical school-books lately brought to our notice.

—No better proof of the effectiveness of the present Ministry of Finance in Russia can be given than by the fact that it has entrusted the department of indirect taxation to so scholarly and eminently practical a man as Nicholas Brzeski. The series of economic works with which he has enriched Russian scientific literature is rapidly becoming classical. He has now published a short résumé of the 'Village Commune and the Economic Insecurity of the Russian Peasants,' which is a lucid and final rejection of the whole system of communal ownership of land under which Russia still groans. This essay is the more timely since a commission is soon to be appointed for the purpose of subjecting the very unsatisfactory condition of the peasants to a searching scrutiny, and it is to be hoped that, in the interest of Russia's agricultural classes and of the country's future, the last traces of the system will be once and for all abandoned for the more rational holdings in severalty. When the serfs were emancipated in 1861, the visionary enthusiasm of communal ownership, superinduced by Haxthausen's discovery of the "mir," unfortunately prevailed over the sober judgment of a minority of counsellors, and the mir was left in full force as the lowest village unit recognized by the state. On the one hand, it was thought that, by leaving the land intact, and by frequent redistributions of its parcels according to the increase of hearths or male members of the family, the formation of a village proletariat would be an impossibility; on the other hand, the Government was mainly interested in securing an undiminished return of taxes from the peasants—the "taxable estate," as it is even now officially called—and this it deemed best attainable by making the commune collectively responsible for all taxes of each member.

—In practice, however, the very reverse of this has happened, in spite of all the remedial measures of the last fifteen years. The reparcellings of small holdings have in many cases led to the creation of such narrow strips that the harrow could not be run over them without interfering with adjacent plots; the uncertainty of keep-

ing the same land in the next redistribution has disorganized thorough farming and has exhausted the soil by reckless cropping; hence the frequent famines. But, worst of all, since the affairs of the mir are settled by a two-thirds vote, the "fists" and "village ogres," the shrewdest members of the village, have systematically, in legal and illegal ways, enriched themselves at the expense of the less active, or shiftless, peasants, and, as elsewhere, the rich have become richer and the poor poorer. Nor has the Government even distantly been benefited by the measure. Mr. Brzeski sees no solution of the question, and no way of placing Russia on a par with other cultured nations, except by recognizing the individual peasant as a citizen, instead of subjecting him to the tyranny of the mir.

THADDEUS STEVENS.

Thaddeus Stevens. By Samuel W. McCall. [American Statesmen Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 12mo, pp. 370.

The Statesmen Series is a very convenient, handy-volume form in which to have the biographies of our prominent public characters, though a completely adequate treatment would sometimes require an exhaustive discussion of the history of an important period with all its measures and its men. Thaddeus Stevens is one of those parliamentary leaders who are peculiarly identified with the policy and the legislation of a critical time. We talk of the President's policy and the policy of Congress as distinctly marked in the political handling of our civil war, and should not be far wrong in saying that, within the Union party, it was Lincoln's choice of measures against the theories of Stevens which were in debate, as in the Reconstruction period it was a war to the knife between Stevens and Johnson. Mr. McCall's limitations in space have made a current sketch of this history all that was possible for him; but he has given it with fair accuracy of drawing, very properly making it his task to present the personality of Mr. Stevens rather than a full discussion of measures, or an estimate of the men with whom he acted and the reasons for his leadership. The little volume will satisfy the popular demand for a short story of the life of a man so prominent in the politics of the "war period," while it will be useful to the student as an outline about which he may arrange his more extensive reading.

One of the most important facts in Stevens's career is that he did not enter Congress till his fifty-eighth year, and then, after four years of not very noteworthy service, was out of public life till his sixty-eighth year, when he was again seated in the House of Representatives, the year before the election of Lincoln as President and the volcanic eruption of the great Rebellion. His national prominence and his phenomenal energy in active leadership were altogether in his old age. After the period at which the judges of the Supreme Court may retire, and when men generally seek exemption from turmoil and struggle, Stevens began a career, and, in a time of revolutionary struggle, for nearly ten years rode monarch of the storm.

But what had he been doing during the lifetime before the striking new advent? We cannot find much that is interesting in it. It was a very ordinary career of a country law-practice and business speculations in rail-

roads and mines. We find him a competitor of Simon Cameron in local ventures both in business and in politics, but generally defeated in money-making competition and outmaneuvered in political ambition. His later admirers claimed rank for him among great lawyers. No doubt he was a forceful advocate in criminal cases and in controversies where popular effects are more important than profound learning. The strategy of debate and the power of invective are the qualities we hear most of. He had sought public position, had served in the State Legislature, and acquired notoriety in the "Buck-shot war," one of those physical struggles for legislative control, half mobbing and half standing siege. He was evidently regarded as a sort of Ishmaelite, unable to work in harness with any party, whether Whig, Democrat, or Free-Soil; daring, combative, as troublesome to his temporary friends as he was formidable to his enemies. An important career did not open readily to him. His private life was a good deal of a piece with the rest. His lameness from a club-foot may have made him cynical as Byron's did. We hear nothing of him in social circles. He never married, and lived a lonely life to the end, meeting his fellow-men almost entirely in official relations, or in the informal groups in cloak-rooms and lobbies where his free and trenchant wit would always draw a circle about him, listening and applauding.

To such an elderly man, nearly a septuagenarian, came an entrance into public influence which he seized and made commanding. His judgment and intellectual convictions were with the party which elected Mr. Lincoln, but he could not be said to have prominence in it. In the House, however, he soon became known as a man who formulated in clearest phrase the most radical view of the secession struggle and its outcome. He satirized all efforts at compromise or conciliation. When the Crittenden resolution was under debate, declaring that "the war is not waged in any spirit of oppression" or to interfere with "the rights or established institutions of the Southern States," his way of cutting to the quick was well shown when he opposed such pronouncements by saying: "Ask them who made the war what is its object" (p. 149). A great war of rebellion being flagrant in fact, he rightly defined the actual task of the Government to be "to subdue the rebels."

It does not follow that because such a radical leader's ground was that to which all supporters of the national side ultimately came, Mr. Lincoln was wrong in keeping before the country and the world the principles of the party which elected him. The revolutionists asserted that they were forced to defend the essential rights of the States which were attacked. They had carried their people into secession by asseverating that the object of the Republicans was abolition of slavery within the States by force. Lincoln met this by calm reiteration of the disclaimer of any such purpose. In 1861 he said, If you now desist from rebellion, slavery within the States will not be attacked; but by the close of 1862 the proclamation of emancipation was in order, by 1865 the Thirteenth Amendment of the Constitution was a condition of peace. In such progress, based on public opinion in a representative government, the responsible executive wisely waits for the ripening of that opinion. The radical leader would not be a radical leader if he were not in ad-

vance of the policy which would at the moment be sustained.

When the time for reconstruction came, the defeat of the rebellion had made abolition a foregone conclusion, not only because the magnitude and persistence of the war had made more radical terms of peace necessary, but because the offer by the Confederacy to enlist slaves avowedly included a promise of freedom, and by necessary implication led to general emancipation. Abolition was not now a radical condition imposed by the conqueror; it was the logical outcome of the situation recognized and in principle accepted by the legislation of the Confederacy. All thinking men at the South confessed that slavery was dead. The nature of radicalism in Mr. Stevens now showed itself by demanding more than was thus confessedly won. He demanded immediate suffrage for the freedmen. In the general opinion of the country it was so necessary that a period of education and progress should intervene between the degradation of chattel slavery and political sovereignty, that Mr. Stevens boldly appealed to motives of mere partisanship to overcome the popular hesitation to step upon such dangerous ground. With negro suffrage, he said, "there would always be Union white men enough in the South, aided by the blacks, to divide the representation, and thus continue the Republican ascendancy" (p. 263).

Up to this point Mr. Stevens's radicalism had been only the pioneer work in the march of enlightened progress. The country came gradually abreast of him. It admired his courage, his trenchant dealing with the logical results of doctrines, his apparent foresight and prophetic leadership, and it hailed him as a statesman. Now, however, he put in question all these qualities, and the doubt began to suggest itself whether his dominant impulse were not to ride the wave at all hazards; whether his radicalism were not an ambition to seem to lead, reckless of consequences. Certainly he failed in both parts of his forecast. The representation in the South was not divided, and the solid South has not undone all that was accomplished by the war. The failure in his judgment was due to a totally mistaken estimate of the character of the elements with which he was dealing, and of the forces which would operate in Southern society. He did not understand the human nature of either race.

The quarrel between Congress and President Johnson is one of the most humiliating chapters in our history, one which the unwisdom of the President was offset by the folly of the impeachment. Mr. Stevens had set his heart upon victory in the combat, and felt the defeat as a personal one. Certainly no statesmanship was shown on either side, and injury was done to the cause of popular government by a coarse wrangle in which there was a rivalry in unseemliness. The spectacle made us more and more amazed at the strange providence which permitted the murder of Mr. Lincoln.

We must conclude, then, that Mr. Stevens's fame and usefulness culminated in his work as legislator in support of Mr. Lincoln's war administration, and that he failed in the constructive work which came when hostilities ceased. His doctrine that the rebellion had destroyed the States engaged in it and reduced them to the con-

dition of foreign territory acquired by conquest, was never sound law, and has given way to the accepted dictum of the Supreme Court that the republic was and is "an indestructible union of indestructible States." The great truth of which he was the champion was that the nation may subdue an insurrection by all the means of civilized war. In the practical application of this to the raising, equipping, and supporting of armies he won deserved renown, and his Congressional leadership was a real one.

In the impression he made on the public in his time, his personal characteristics had much to do. Age and experience modified the bitterness of his speech. His sarcasms became irony, and this was often of the playful kind, which amuses and gets the rhetorical advantage without provoking personal ill feeling. His age and his acknowledged leadership made him in a real sense the "father of the House." His witty flagellations, his gravely ironical exhortations, his paternal advice, all uttered in quiet conversational tones, which assumed that it was more important to others to be silent and hearken, than it was for him to exert himself to be heard, schooled the House to new ways when he was on his feet, and brought close around him a crowd of listeners, sure of being entertained and very likely to be taught. He had in a very high degree the "art of putting things," so that his brief, telling statements were often better than argument; for, even when sophistical, they captured at once, if at all, and to stop for analysis was to weaken or destroy the effect. His growing feebleness of body added an element of deferential sympathy to his treatment by his party, and made his eminence seem at the time almost an unrivalled one. It was inevitable that time should diminish this apparent importance. A brilliant and curiously interesting figure of the war period he will always be, but it will be the brilliancy of the partisan chieftain, not of the self-poised general.

RECENT WORKS ON DANTE.—I.

The number of new books relating to Dante and his works does not decrease, but the present year will hardly provide students of the life and writings of the poet with as many works of high quality as those which made 1897-1898 notable in the history of Dantesque studies. It is somewhat remarkable that three of these books were of a comprehensive and encyclopædic character—works of information rather than of interpretation—and all of them the result of the labors of many years.

First among them, as an original treatise, is the 'Dante, his Life and Work, his Relation to Art and Politics,'* of the venerable professor at Freiburg, Dr. Franz Xaver Kraus, whose writings upon Christian Art have long held a high place in the esteem of scholars. The erudition, the fairness of mind, the temperate and liberal spirit displayed in his earlier work are conspicuous in this vast volume of 800 large octavo pages. It is divided into five books, of which the first is given to the Life of the poet, the second to his Minor Writings, the third to

* 'Dante, sein Leben und sein Werk, sein Verhältnis zur Kunst und zur Politik.' Von Franz Xaver Kraus. Mit zahlreichen Illustrationen. Berlin: Grote. 1897. Pp. xii, 792.

his 'Divine Comedy,' the fourth to his relation to Art, the fifth to his relation to Politics, including his relation to the Church. The comprehensiveness of its design is manifest from the mere statement of its contents, but the breadth of its scope is not so extraordinary as the enormous stock of material which Dr. Kraus has accumulated and dealt with under every head of his subject. Nothing seems to have escaped the author's grasp, and his work is a notable specimen of the minute, laborious industry characteristic of much of the work of German scholars, and of the hardly less characteristic lack of discrimination in regard to the value of his materials. The book would, indeed, have been more useful had its author, following the example of Justinian, rejected *il troppo e il vano*. Nearly one hundred pages of the section entitled "Dante and his Relation to Art" are occupied with an account of the illustrations of the 'Divine Comedy,' in manuscripts, in the printed editions, and in the independent works of many artists. It contains numerous representations of illustrations of various sorts, some of which are of interest, and it affords much curious information on the subject, but it has little to do with Dante himself and might well have been reserved for independent publication. So, too, the elaborate analysis of the contents of the 'Divina Comedia,' which occupies more than thirty pages, might have been omitted.

In spite, however, of its defect of "too much," the book is one for which the student of Dante has reason to be grateful. It is not merely a compilation of the opinions of others and a compend of facts, but its most interesting portions are those in which the author sets forth his own opinions—opinions for the most part well-considered and based on ample knowledge. The sections on the minor works of Dante are distinguished not more for the amount of information which they contain than for the intelligent critical discussion of their contents, their relation to each other, and the light which they throw on the character and life of the poet. In the discussion of matters of controversy, of which there are so many of a nature to excite the bitterest passions of commentators, Dr. Kraus displays an admirable temper. His training as a Catholic theologian is of constant service to him as an interpreter of the poet, and his exposition of the doctrines of his Church and of Dante's presentation of them and general attitude to the Church and the Papacy, is liberal and luminous.

In regard to the much debated question as to the real existence of the Beatrice of the 'Vita Nuova,' Dr. Kraus supports the view of Bartoli, that she was a purely ideal being, or, in his unintentionally humorous and untranslatable phrase, "die Verobjectivierung einer tiefsinnerlichen subjectiven Conception." This interpretation, which draws some support from the tendency of the Provençal and earlier Italian poets toward the idealizing of abstract conceptions, fails, as we think, to take sufficient account of the distinctive qualities of Dante's poetic nature. He, indeed, shared in the disposition to dress the conceptions of the prose understanding in the garb of poetry, but his genius found its most natural and freest expression in idealizing the figures of actual life, and in exalting them from the realm of transient existence into the permanent world of the poetic imagination. There

may be good reason for rejecting Boccaccio's identification of Dante's Beatrice with Beatrice Portinari; and the 'Vita Nuova' is to be held not as a narrative of actual occurrences in their literal order and relation, but rather as an artificially composed romantic story. Yet this romance was not a pure invention of the understanding, a carefully elaborated and cold tale of allegorized abstractions, but, on the contrary, it was an ideal and poetic presentation of a real experience, palpitating with genuine emotion, hot with passionate feeling, and shaped by the imagination into the form which corresponded to its true relations with life. The evidence of the actual existence of the Beatrice, the woman whom Dante loved, which is afforded by the 'Vita Nuova,' the 'Convito,' and the 'Divine Comedy,' seems to us absolutely irrefragable, and to be disputed only by those who would interpret the nature of the poet by the rules which serve for the great prose mass of mankind.

But this is not the opportunity for a full discussion of such matters, or for treating the many topics of interest which Dr. Kraus's work presents. In brief, his book is to be commended for many merits, and there is no student of Dante who will not find profit in making himself acquainted with it.*

Valuable as Dr. Kraus's book is, it was, perhaps, not the most important contribution made by Germany in 1898 to the study of Dante. The year saw the practical completion of Dr. Scartazzini's 'Enciclopedia Dantesca,'† the crowning work of its author's labors in the field which he has done more to cultivate than any other living scholar. In some concluding words, written, we regret to note, in a tone of depression, he speaks of it as a work *che m'ha fatto per più anni macro*, too gigantic in its proportions to admit of absolute completeness in its first draught; and he promises a supplement, to contain what is needed for perfecting it, provided his impaired health allow him to fulfill his intention. He may indeed be congratulated on having already accomplished so much, and the multitude of students already under obligation to him will join in the hope that his strength may be speedily so restored as to enable him to carry out his design to its end. The 'Enciclopedia' is truly a gigantic work, its two volumes consisting of 2,200 closely printed pages of more than 400 words to a full page, exhibiting an amount of erudition even beyond that full measure which the best German scholars have taught the world to expect from them. It is, as its title-page states, "a critical and explanatory Dictionary of whatever concerns

*It is matter of regret that a work which does so much honor to its author, and which has so stately a form, should swarm with errors of the press. At its close there is a list of twelve of them, but this is to trifle with the reader; we have noted nearly two hundred misprints, and have passed without noting them many more—most of them, indeed, of very slight consequence, and a large proportion of them in the citations from works in languages foreign to the German compositor or proof-reader. But some of them are serious enough to perplex the reader, as, for example, p. 448, n. 6, where the following reference is given, "Summ. theol. II. 2. 9. u. 60, art. 5," which should read, "Summ. theol. II. 2. qu. 64, art. 5." On p. 475, l. 25, "coelorum indulationi" should be "coelorum circulationi"; and in note 4, on the same page, we read, "id est inter coelum et coelorum talis temporis virtuosus inferior infundetur," but should read, "id est inter coelum et coelum talis temporalis virtuosus inferior infundetur." On p. 87, the familiar verse from the 24th canto of the 'Purgatorio,' "femmina è nata, e non porta ancor benda" is transformed to: "femmina è nata, e non porta amor benda." But enough: "degli altri fia laudabile tacerel."

† 'Enciclopedia Dantesca.' Dizionario critico e ragionato di quanto concerne la vita e le opere di Dante Alighieri. Vol. I. and II. sm. 8vo, pp. ix, 2,200. Milan: U. Hoepli. 1898-1899.

the Life and Works of Dante," including a complete vocabulary, not only of the 'Divine Comedy,' but also of the minor works of the poet; and this enormous undertaking has been so well executed that, whatever other aids the student of Dante may possess, this must be held by him as indispensable, and will be found an ample and superior substitute for almost all other books of reference, in its special department. It affords both an original comment and a full compend of the opinions of other commentators on difficult passages in the writings of the poet; it gives accounts, generally concise but sufficient, of persons and events mentioned in them; it deals with the incidents of Dante's own life; and it discusses critically the doubtful and obscure points of his biography and in the relation of his works to each other and to his life. The bibliographical references are so abundant as to direct the student to the sources of further information, and so exact that the path is made easy for him. The vocabulary, in respect to both etymology and definition, though not altogether satisfactory in its etymological portion, is a great advance upon that of Blanc, which, from the date of its publication, nearly fifty years ago, has been one of the most useful of the aids in the study of the 'Divine Comedy.' In this part of his work Dr. Scartazzini has derived much assistance from the invaluable Concordance of Dr. Fay issued by our American Dante Society.

It would be surprising if there were not oversights and defects in a work of such compass and such difficulty; but, whatever they may be, they are of comparatively slight moment. In this book, as in that of Dr. Kraus, the main fault is that of the "too much"; of an occasional heaping together of a mass of material when a selection from it would be more useful. The distinction between pedantry and learning is one which the modern German scholar and his American imitator find it difficult to draw, and a lack of discrimination between the important and the unimportant leads frequently to disproportion in treatment. Dr. Scartazzini's work is not free from this error, and a striking instance of it is afforded by his giving no less than twenty-three pages to the reprint under *Titone* of an essay, from his Leipzig edition of the 'Divine Comedy,' on the interpretation of the first verse of the ninth canto of the *Purgatorio*, *La concubina di Titone antico*. It would have been better to condense the conclusions of this discussion into a single page, and to refer the reader for the full argument to the volume where it originally appeared. The main object of the essay is to show the difficulty attending the acceptance of the interpretations of the passage hitherto proposed, so as to clear the way for the adoption of another reading of the verse and a new interpretation of it, proposed by Dr. Scartazzini in his notes to the Leipzig edition; and it is a little amusing that the essay does not inform the reader what this new interpretation referred to in it actually is, so that, unless he have the required edition at hand, he is utterly unable to determine what it may be.

There are, of course, many points in a work of such scope on which the opinion of a competent student may differ from that of the author, but there are very few on which Dr. Scartazzini's judgment is not to be held in high respect. We repeat, in con-

clusion, that the work is one henceforth indispensable to every serious student of Dante.

From Comte to Benjamin Kidd. By Robert Mackintosh, D.D. The Macmillan Co. 1899. 8vo, pp. 312.

Better-World Philosophy. By J. Howard Moore. Chicago: The Ward Waugh Co. 1899. 12mo, pp. 275.

Here are two answers to Kidd's 'Social Evolution.' It is a new indication of the usefulness of extreme positions in philosophy that that work should still be evoking refutations and replies. Dr. Mackintosh's book reviews the whole history of the application of biology to ethics from Comte down, and gives serious criticisms of the doctrines of Comte, Hatch, Spencer, Leslie Stephen, Miss Cobbe, Bagehot ('Darwinism in Politics'), S. Alexander, Huxley (Romanes Lecture), Drummond ('Natural Law in the Spiritual World' and 'Ascent of Man'), Sutherland, Ritchie ('Darwinism and Politics'), and Kidd—making a valuable history of this movement of thought. There was no decisive reason for beginning with Comte. The author might as well have gone back at least as far as Cabanis, the original author of the phrase, "The brain secretes thought as the liver secretes bile," usually attributed to the compiler Büchner. Although Cabanis insisted that "the soul is not an entity," but a faculty" (a phrase, by the way, to be noted by those who imagine that all psychologists before Herbart regarded faculties as entities), and maintained distinctly that psychology is a branch of physiology and is to be studied in the physiological laboratory, yet he held that morality is, in some sense, obedience to the will of "the first causes." In truth, the idea of founding ethics on biology may be traced back to the beginnings of modern science. Its germ may be found in Servetus, who thought that, in order to understand the soul and its workings, the motion of the blood must be studied, and in Bernardino Telesio, the father of sensationalism. Still, Comte makes a convenient starting-point, being the earliest of the thinkers of this class whose works are still much read, whose influence is distinctly felt, and whose school survives.

Dr. Mackintosh devotes more than one-sixth of his book to Comte, a disproportionate space, considering how far the author of the Positive Philosophy was from anything like Darwinian ideas. Dr. Mackintosh's criticism seems to be animated by a spirit of fairness, and is certainly thoroughly studied. His ways of thinking, however, are not those of a scientific man. He sometimes intimates dark misgivings as to the foundations of what he calls "(finite) science"—suggestions about as profitable as inquiries on the part of a leper as to whether his leprosy was legitimate. What each generation has to do is to follow out the path that lies open to it—which for us is the path of scientific investigation. About the logic of scientific hypotheses and the logical status of natural selection and of evolution generally, Dr. Mackintosh's ideas seem pretty confused, as a long chapter on "The Metaphysics of Natural Selection," the weakest in the book, shows.

However needful biologists may find it to admit, for the present, that natural selection has been the main agency in the development of species, yet the presumption is

that any hypothesis concerning so complicated a matter, let it seem at first to accord as well as it may with the facts, will come in time to be profoundly modified, just as the hypotheses of general physics are undergoing modification, although this is a far simpler subject than biology. The physicists are unwilling to admit that there can have been life on the earth for so long a period as the Darwinian theory seems to require, or that the history of the globe has been so uniformitarian as Darwin, with unwonted warmth, assumed. The biologists themselves tell us that the life history of the individual reproduces, in outline, that of the development of the race. Now, individual development is at one stage very rapid and at another very slow. Moreover, if Darwinism has any lessons for ethics, we must suppose that intellectual and social development is due to the same general causes as the development of species. But no form of psychological development has, so far as history can trace it, proceeded at a nearly uniform rate. Meantime, there are very few cases, if any, in which we can say of any observed phenomenon that it certainly would have resulted from the action of natural selection; all we can usually say is that it very likely might have so resulted. But, as Dr. Karl Pearson points out, almost anything might result from natural selection. It is too elastic a theory to be very certain. For these and other reasons, though there is no doubt natural selection does act, yet we may not irrationally deem it unlikely that the adaptations of means to ends throughout nature are to be mainly accounted for by minute fortuitous variations together with the elimination of forms unsuited to those ends. Our direct observational knowledge of biological variations in reproduction leaves us altogether ignorant of whether there are any adaptations to needs in those variations, or whether they are quite fortuitous. We know no more about this than we do as to whether the ideas suggested by the law of mental association are, in their nascent state, at all adapted to ends or are purely random. To be confident that it is not so would be rash. But this does not justify Dr. Mackintosh in finding fault with Darwin's procedure in assuming the variations to be fortuitous. Science is not a fixed, unchangeable body of propositions. After a thousand years the general face of science may be modified past recognition. Scientific hypotheses are questions put to nature. In the game of twenty questions, no skillful player begins by guessing what he thinks most likely. He seeks to fix one feature at a time. Scientific research is a much more intricate business; and various considerations go to determining what is the best hypothesis to try. But it is certain that if Darwin had made his hypothesis such as Dr. Mackintosh would have it, he would have blundered grievously in asking in one question what ought to have been asked in two.

Mr. Moore's book is as different from Dr. Mackintosh's as it well could be. Dr. Mackintosh does nothing but argue. Mr. Moore does not argue very much; he expresses his sentiments in a forcible and lively manner which is rather persuasive. Those sentiments, except, perhaps, in their strenuous intensity, are not particularly novel. He believes as thoroughly as Mr. Kidd in the natural egoism of man, and thinks that things never can go right until this is recognized,

and until the main effort of education is directed towards its cure. He is particularly shocked at the manner in which man enslaves the brutes. He seems to forget that a horse must be treated, as he is—not so very cruelly, by the way, with his valet and his every need provided for—or he would not be born at all. But human nature must be revised “with revolutionary intent.” Mr. Moore is quite sure “the sun will yet pour his fire upon an age . . . when it will be a crime for malfectives to beget.” Mr. Moore spells *though* “tho” and *through* “thru.” We know not how he would spell *height*! for his book does not, we think, contain the word. It is not one Mr. Moore would be likely to use. He would probably prefer *celsity*, or *altiment*, or *vertilation*.

Flaubert. Par Émile Faguet. [Les Grands Écrivains Français.] Paris: Hachette & Cie. 1899. 16mo, pp. 191.

This is the first time that M. Faguet, whose vigorous vivacity and amusing dogmatism are met with often in the *Revue*s of these days, has appeared among the writers about writers who are creating the excellent collection of short biographies, or, more truly, studies, of the Great Writers of France. His volume slips into its proper place between those on George Sand, fourth in the irregular series, and on Théophile Gautier, the tenth. The masculine sprightliness of M. Faguet is well set off by M. Caro's unctuous seriousness in the case of George Sand, and his admirable freedom from “gossip” is doubly agreeable by the side of M. Du Camp's unwelcome confidences in the case of Gautier. The whole volume resembles, perhaps a little too much, its frontispiece—a reproduction of the monument to Flaubert at Rouen by Chapu, in which his head merely is given, and the “monument” is the figure of the Muse of Criticism, pen in hand, reading his works, while in the list of them at her side, the one he himself cared for most is not included. M. Faguet represents, as this does, the judgment of posterity, and what he says has peculiar value from that point of view. But the judgment of posterity is apt to seem a little cold to the contemporaries of an author who, just because they are his contemporaries, have become his personal friends.

M. Faguet's estimate of Flaubert as a writer is so very high that it makes his want of appreciation of him as a man all the more marked. As a thinker, no one can defend Flaubert, but it never can be said too often that his heart was far more interesting than his head; and when M. Faguet speaks of the touching friendship he formed with “la délicateuse consolatrice des affligés,” George Sand in her old age, one wishes that he had indicated the generous and ardent appreciation felt and expressed by the sadder spirit, whose unhappiness was greatly a matter of temperament and of physical conditions, and was much increased by his extreme sensitiveness and the tenderness of his affections.

As a master of the art of writing—“the art of creating with difficulty works of an easy and natural character”—M. Faguet places Flaubert among the highest. “Flaubert is one of the greatest writers in French literature,” he declares, and the twenty pages he devotes to “Flaubert écrivain” are among the most interesting in the volume. He ferrets into the details of the structure of Flaubert's impeccable sentences with the most contagious eagerness. More

than one of his remarks are noteworthy. “Flaubert may be considered to be a model for style. I say for style. His language is not absolutely pure. . . . In this respect I think Théophile Gautier alone in our time is faultless.” A little later there are original and acute pages on the manner in which “the image,” whether comparison or metaphor or symbol, presents itself to different minds. And, again, on the variety of tone in Flaubert. But the important part of the book lies among the hundred pages in the middle, where romanticism and realism are studied, and Flaubert's relations to them and the relations of them to his works.

M. Faguet is more than right in maintaining that the *fond* of Flaubert's nature was to a high degree romantic, and he could have brought a thousand proofs in support of this belief; but the essential quality of romanticism is its repugnance to realism, its desire to escape from reality, and this quality Flaubert had nothing of. His mind was divided between the perceptions of realities and the conceptions created by a lawless and fruitful imagination. “He liked to see with precision, clearness, vividly, minutely, and surely; he liked to imagine things vast, immense, colossal, terrifying, and somewhat monstrous.” These two tendencies show themselves through the whole of his literary life, but never in full force at one and the same time; always in alternation. After “*Madame Bovary*,” “*Salammbo*”; after the “*Éducation Sentimentale*,” the “*Temptation of St. Antony*”; after “*St. Antony*,” “*Bouvard et Pécuchet*.” In the realistic works the romantic side of his nature reveals itself only through the intimacy of his knowledge of the quality. He had observed in himself its many degrees and metamorphoses, and his self-love was less offended by throwing contempt on its manifestations in weaker minds than it was gratified by marking the differences between himself and them in its forms. In his romantic works, the realist in him reveals itself only by his precise description of material objects.

Because Flaubert was the first who perceived that true art demands the essential separation of the two kinds of vision, he was the first true French realist. Balzac's realism was always much mingled with romanticism. Like Flaubert, he put pure realism uniformly into the painting of things, but there is much romanticism in Balzac's characters and still more in the events of their lives. The realism of Stendahl and of Mérimée was chiefly applied to exotic subjects, and both of them were more psychologists than realists, and succeeded in conveying an impression of truth more than of reality. These three great writers therefore created rather than satisfied a taste for reality. “*Madame Bovary*” was a work of perfectly new character in French literature. What had been bud and blossom ripened into fruit, in 1857. In 1850 the name of “realism” had become familiar to the literary world in connection, oddly enough, with the works of the estimable and now forgotten author Champfleury; its existence was recognized. But it was Flaubert who decided its character and marked out its path. Twenty years later, the critic Émile Montégut, and not he alone, recognized the historic importance of “*Madame Bovary*”; he spoke of it as “a

book that makes a date not only in the history of literature, but in the moral history of the nation," because "Madame Bovary" has really been, for the false ideal brought into fashion by the romantic literature, what Don Quixote was for the extravagance of chivalry, what the 'Précieuses Ridicules' was for the influence of the Hôtel de Rambouillet."

The Gam. By Capt. Charles Henry Robbins. New Bedford, Mass.: H. S. Hutchinson & Co.

To the uninitiated the title of this book will require explanation. A gam, technically, is a great collection of whales gathered together preliminary to dispersal, when each goes its own way. Figuratively, it applies to a congregation of whalers for purposes of gossip, story-telling, or for any sort of festivity. When two whale-ships meet at sea, if the weather be fit and no business is doing, officers and crews exchange visits and indulge in a gam. In the present, as in other nautical books recently noticed by us, the author is introduced to the reader by some well-known writer who, in more or less fulsome vein, vouches for his veracity and the merit of his composition. In this instance Dr. Edward Everett Hale stands sponsor for Captain Robbins, who in turn "gratefully acknowledges the editorial suggestions" of a friend. Both of these functionaries are entirely unnecessary. The author is at his best when he is not edited, for then we have the genuine spontaneous talk of a deep-water sailor-man who had followed the sea for forty-eight years, during twenty-one of which he was in command. While the literary value of the book does not attain to that of Dana's or Melville's, it possesses a striking quality of its own that lifts it securely out of the rut of the commonplace.

The opening story, entitled "The Fatted Calf," relates to the return home of a lad after a first experience at sea. It is the least interesting of the series, for too much space is given to silly sentiment and to the description of domestic festivity at New Bedford fifty-eight years ago. Latin is clearly out of place in a nautical yarn told by the skipper of a whaler; yet in this instance the phrase "Absolvo te" is a common utterance of the heroine; and the hero is encouraged to tell why he was "a *persona non grata*" on board ship. The lot of a person *non grata* on land, with ample opportunity to escape local criticism, is not a happy one; but when he makes himself obnoxious within the narrow limits of a vessel at sea, the incidents that befall him may be readily imagined.

In the succeeding stories, the author, to his great advantage, is not so much hampered by the "editorial suggestions" of a friend. Consequently, what he has to tell he recounts in a bluff, sailor-like way that imparts unusual force and picturesqueness to the narrative. No better description of the pursuit and killing of a whale has been printed than that given in the story entitled "That Great Leviathan." Capt. Robbins here tenders an explanation of a whale's spout. The imaginative pictorial representations of it would lead one to suppose that a good part of the animal can be seen above the surface of the sea,

and that the spout is composed of great jets of water. All that is visible of a whale from a ship's deck is its spout, and that is a mere column of vapor—the creature's breath. By the spout, the two kinds of whales, sperm and right, can be distinguished. The first has but one spout-hole, through which it ejects the vapor of its breath at an angle of about forty-five degrees; a thick spout and not very high rising from a point near the animal's nose. A right whale has two spout-holes very close together. They are much nearer the lungs than in the sperm whale; consequently the vapor shoots up higher, as straight as a mast, and it spreads as it rises. No liquid is ejected through the spout-hole except blood from the lungs during the death flurry.

For uniform excellence there is little to choose (barring the first) between the various tales of which "The Gam" is composed. In that one entitled "The Albatross" there is an account of a hurricane described by a dauntless, clear-headed captain, the preservation of whose ship depends upon his resourceful seamanship. It is told in simple words, but so realistically and forcefully that it makes the reader feel that he is an actual participant in the perils which beset the battered craft.

Le Malaise de la Démocratie. Par Gaston Deschamps. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 1899.

This thoughtful book is a contribution to the popular discussion of contemporary France. Although its moralizing is principally intended for home consumption, it is calculated to incite similar reflections upon our own civic life, which, if it has not borrowed evil from without, has developed it from original causes with about the same results as in the younger republic. M. Deschamps's chapter on the decadence of the Deputy from a national representative into a metropolitan agent for his constituents, supplying them with information, introductions, theatre tickets, hotel accommodation, decorations, and, above all, places, till he becomes, not their representative but their valet, reads like a *fabula de te* for our own Congressmen. Not less familiar is the description of a newspaper press, in which the mere gathering, pell-mell, of all sorts of reportage, grave and trivial, under the name of "news," replaces a real editing of the day's events so as to give them their proper perspective, and the *coup de gueule* has boo'd down wit and reason.

M. Deschamps attributes the present demoralization of his country largely to the abandonment of the "Gallic" tradition and the adoption of exotic ideas and systems of education, in the hope of winning the material success of Germans and Anglo-Saxons. The youth of France is educated, not by great teachers, like Michelet, who blended with their lectures idealism and morality, but by the consumption of the husks of knowledge in vast quantities, thus developing a few great specialists and thousands of mediocrities. We accuse the young of irreverence, he says; but we offer them nothing particularly worthy their respect. He hopes for a regenerating revival of French valor, courtesy, chivalry, good sense—in short, of what he calls *un bon nationalisme*—and a reform in the state that will subordinate private interest to the common weal. As to the in-

evitable *Affaire* that obtrudes itself in all current French political discussion, he expresses himself (without hazarding an opinion on the merits) as detesting lies and nonsense (*mensonges et bêtises*). His book is wittily dedicated "To the good Citizens who are afflicted by the Present and anxious about the Future—to the Great Minister we lack—to the Statesman we are waiting for." It will interest all whose happiness depends on the success of democratic government; and, as complementary to Mr. Lecky's more profound work on 'Democracy and Liberty,' should find many readers here and in England.

From Sea to Sea: Letters of Travel. By Rudyard Kipling. Doubleday & McClure Co.

The letters of travel collected in the first volume of 'From Sea to Sea' are newer to Americans than those in the second. They are impressions of India, China, and Japan, and, though not remarkable for purely descriptive quality, are all vivacious and readable. Remembering the date of composition, one is interested in the indication of some of Mr. Kipling's qualities which time has so fully developed—conspicuously, observation very quick, yet also patient and accurate, followed by decided opinion and prompt judgment not always profound or sound. Very clearly he blows a whistle of patriotic fervor that has expanded into the trumpet of Imperialism. The temper of the work is exhilarating. One is always in the company of a rollicking boy, who has already done a man's work and is off alone on his first long lark. He is a most companionable youth, shrewd, clean, humorous, perfectly sure of himself, differing from other clever youths chiefly in his passionate eagerness to know all kinds and conditions of men, and his all-embracing curiosity. The letters about America are really not so intemperate as they appeared when served piecemeal by the press nine or ten years ago. Some Americans have peculiar manners, habits of speech, and a mental attitude often objectionable to other Americans and always offensive to foreigners. This very alert and positive young Anglo-Indian fell in with men who "guessed" when they should have known, who never made a moderate statement, and revelled in lurid misrepresentation, who had little regard for human life and less for the honest administration of their country's laws. He loathed such men, and, very naturally supposing that they existed in this country in great numbers, proceeded to generalize in language neither kind nor civil. Nevertheless, he exclaims: "I love this people, and if there is any harsh criticism to be done, I shall do it myself." Following his steps, one wonders where he found anything lovable except the pretty women.

The style of the letters is journalistic, and one may infer from them that the Anglo-Indian is as uncertain about "shall" and "will" as any Scotchman. The bits that take literary rank are characterizations of people met by chance. "Old California," the "insurance man," the "old lady from Chicago," and a dozen others, have the touch of a born painter from life. In the articles entitled "The Smith Administration" the storyteller easily thrusts the journalist out of sight; and in the description of Calcutta, called "The City of Dreadful Night," an imagination inflammable and tragic is vividly present.

The Art of Teaching. By David Salmon, Principal of Swansea Training College. Longmans, Green & Co.

Is there no way by which the essentials of the delicate art of teaching can be appropriated by those who have never attended a normal school? The weakness of our normal schools lies, in part, in the scanty knowledge of those who attend them; in part, in the tendency to teach only methods and to exalt the particular method taught, as if there were not many roads by which a goal in education may be reached. Many of the ablest men who enter the teacher's calling lack that moderate amount of training which would have been to them an inestimable boon. The better the scholarship, the finer the character, the greater the natural aptitude, the more is it to be desired that the possessor of scholarship, character, and aptitude should have his attention directed to the general principles which underlie all good teaching. Can this be done by books? "Yes," we answer, and such a book as Salmon's is specially to be recommended for such a service.

It is noteworthy how many excellent books on the teacher's art have recently been produced in England. It is no longer true, as R. H. Quick remarked thirty years ago, that all "good books on education are in German." Salmon's contributions to elementary school literature are many and valuable. It suffices to mention his 'Object Lessons,' 'School Grammar,' 'School Composition,' 'Stories from Early English History.' He has now collected into the volume before us his views on the 'Art of Teaching.' The treatment of the subject is orderly, thorough, authoritative. He takes up first the fundamental matters of order, attention, discipline. Then comes a charming discussion of the art of oral questioning. Next follows an estimate of the claims upon attention of the main subjects of elementary study, with invaluable hints as to the teaching of each. The subjects treated are: Reading, Spelling, Writing, Arithmetic, English, Geography, History. This is, indeed, familiar ground, but the treatment is so able, so acute, so comprehensive, that there is constant variety and constant interest. A very valuable portion of the volume is the section of sixty pages on Infant Education. Not only are the history and development of the kindergarten here admirably discussed, but the original and valuable contributions of England to the education of young children are set forth.

Our first quotations from Salmon shall be in regard to Order:

"The cultivation of essential qualities in himself is only half the price which the teacher must pay for order; the other half is untiring attention to details. A dirty or disorderly school makes dirty and disorderly pupils. Easels, blackboards, books, all materials, should have assigned places, and, except when in use, should never be out of them. Maps and diagrams should hang straight. A basket should be provided for waste papers, and the use of it should be enforced. The habit, which many children have, of taking too much ink on the pen and shaking the excess on the floor, should be repressed; the repression will be made easier if the ink-wells are not more than half filled. The best wall decorations are not maps or charts, but pictures which are works of art. On window-ledge or brackets should be boxes or pots of growing plants or ferns. Children should be encouraged to bring them, and the tending of them should be a reward of neatness or good conduct. Nothing should be omitted that is likely to make the children take a pride in the school-

room and feel that it is a semi-sacred place."

"The whole routine of the school should be regulated, literally, by clockwork. Lessons should always begin and cease precisely at the minute set down. All general motions should be regulated by word of command. There should be a settled plan for assembling, dismissing; standing, sitting; changing places or tasks; giving out and collecting books, papers, etc. Nothing should be haphazard, nothing left to the caprice of children."

"You may say to an individual pupil, 'Please to stand,' but with a class you should say, 'Stand.'"

"Never repeat a command."

"Having given a command, never proceed until all your pupils have obeyed it."

"Never assume that you may be disobeyed."

"Never threaten or promise."

"Never shout."

"Never sneer."

"The great use of order is to secure attention. Children should be taught *how* to attend. As Thring says, 'Sitting over your book and using your mind are not the same; breeches-wear and brain-wear are not the same, though the same time may be spent.'"

"Discipline is as essential to the growth of character as attention to the growth of intellect. Order aims at securing prompt attention to commands; discipline, at making commands unnecessary. Order says to a child, 'You must.' Discipline teaches him to say, 'I will.' Young children have no moral sense; the great end of discipline is to convert the non-moral boy or girl into the good man or woman. The first and last grand rule for the teacher: 'Remember that the end of discipline is the formation of the will.'"

Most wise and helpful is Salmon's discussion of the best ways of teaching the elementary studies. This portion of the book is a true teacher's manual. Our second quotation shall be from the author's discussion of the teaching of English. He begins with the teaching of English composition. No greater mistake, he says, can be made than to suppose that composition can be taught by correction of mistakes alone.

"The essay, like the 'sum' in arithmetic, is a valuable exercise when it compels children to apply instruction already received; but, till instruction has been given, the teacher should no more expect the essay to be written than he expects the 'sum' to be worked."

"Lessons in English have a double aim: the enlargement of vocabulary and the construction of sentences. The complete essay calls for reading, experience, reflection. As these cannot be expected from young children, the earliest exercises in continuous composition should be the reproduction of a short narrative, with an obvious point. To counteract the tendency of children to reproduce the sentences which they have heard, narratives in rhyme should be freely employed. Next in order of difficulty to the telling of a story comes (1) the description of a picture, a building, a village, a walk; (2) the writing of a letter; (3) an essay."

"When the essay is taken up, the children have already learned to express a simple thought. The thing now to be done is to give them confidence by showing them that they have something to say, if they only think."

The author shows most entertainingly how, by stimulating questions, the matter for an essay may be elicited. Suppose the subject to be the "cat." In answer to questions to the class, an outline may be worked out, and this outline may be written on the board, under the following heads:

The cat: (1) where kept, (2) why kept, (3) fitted to be a beast of prey (a) by teeth, (b) by claws, (c) by pads on feet.

The next step is for the pupil to make his own outline, not the exact copy of that which has been placed on the board. This outline or skeleton Salmon regards as es-

sential in the teaching of composition. "A composition," he says, "which has no skeleton cannot help being invertebrate."

It is a genuine pleasure to commend without qualification this admirable manual. It is a worthy companion to Fitch's 'Lectures on Teaching,' and, like that book, ought to be on every teacher's shelf.

The Custom of the Country: Tales of New Japan. By Mrs. Hugh Fraser. Macmillan.

The five stories in this volume admirably supplement Mitford's classic 'Tales of Old Japan,' with which they compel comparison and contrast. They are based on a class of facts patent to all keen observers, are framed in by the same phenomena of nature, and have for their general theme the unchanging passions of the human heart. The subjective element in Mitford is prominently masculine; in that of Mrs. Fraser it is pervasively and most delicately feminine. It is all the more unfortunate—a very gibe of fate, the "topsy-turviness" not of Japan but of English Philistinism or Yankee stupidity—that on the cover of this volume the bookbinder has stamped the Yoshiwara woman of the front-tied girdle and hair bedecked with sheaf of tortoise-shell pins. Mitford tells much and often of *her*, Mrs. Fraser never.

The author has potent elements for three of her tales in the lonesome bachelor of the "hong" and the drudging student-interpreter within the legation "compound," in the brilliant dancing girl and pretty geisha and the "airnest" Scottish missionary. Then there is the allowable and socially orthodox secret heaven for the man who indulges in "the custom of the country," and, over against and below it, the sure damnation of the conscience-driven man who marries a daughter of Japan.

In "In Tokyo," the Scotsman who lives chastely, though employing a Japanese maid, despite the protests of his clerical countryman against the presence of one "ower weel-favored for a single man's home," waits for his betrothed, to whom he was hastily engaged while on holiday in Europe. Happily he sickens and dies before learning that his affianced marries on her way out a fellow-passenger at Hong Kong and abides there. In "She Danced before Him" we have a story told with all the marvellous resources of a colorist in language, who knows Japanese womankind well. It is no daughter of Herodias who fascinates the young Englishman, but a genius of grace and motion, who by night, on land and water, charms a foreign lover, while in hours of drudgery at home she ministers to a leper. The touch of tragedy is not lacking in any of these stories, except the last, which is a pure comedy of smuggling and "Sealskins."

In the title-story, the stiff, narrow, and severe female Christian, who knows, apparently, little of the Master whom in name only she serves, is finely set as foil to the superb womanhood of the Scotsman's Japanese wife. The perils and penalties of the man or the woman who flouts the traditions and braves the orthodoxy of a whole civilization, are set forth with the literary power and the genius which we should expect from the sister of Marion Crawford. In "A Son of the Daimyos" we have a brilliant picture of modern native society in Tokio and of the new navy of Japan in war-time. "On the pa-

lette of this literary artist are all the tints borrowed from ocean, sky, and earth, long and lovingly studied. Her drawing, "round as Giotto's O" and exact to a hair-line, sets before us the life of foreigner and native at the point where civilizations meet, while her coloring of language suggests the rich tints of Wores, Lafarge, and Parsons. The book is a fine corrective to Pierre Loti's 'Madame Chrysanthème.'

Between the Ocean and the Lakes: The Story of Erie. By Edward Harold Mott. New York: John S. Collins. 1899.

Thoroughly studied and skilfully set forth, the history of the Erie Railroad would present in epitome the history of railroad-building and of corporation growth in this country. Such a volume would begin with the railroad as a tentative novelty, ancillary to the canal, roughly laid with the crude notion that it might serve every one for a public highway, and must, after fifty years, be owned by the State; and would show it expanding till nearly all the travel and inland trade of the continent rolls over its solid bed, linking in a half-dozen distinct lines the shores of two oceans with hooks of steel. It would trace the railroad's financial and political growth, from the years when it was the sport of politics, standing hat in hand to beg for State aid, and the years when it bought judges and corrupted Legislatures, and swayed national policy. It would tell on what meat this our Frankenstein has fed that it has grown so great. And all the lights and shadows of the large picture might be copied from the story in miniature of the Erie Road. For the tide of Erie's fortunes, in its stormy fluctuation, has touched the high-water mark of railroad prosperity, and has once and again ebbed to the depths of distress and ruin. The Erie's long and swiftly changing line of managers exhibits men of supreme ability, statesmen and world-financiers, and also men of consummate villainy, who just grazed the penitentiary. In its darkest days it was a treasure-ship, beset by pirates in collusion with its pillaging crew. Yet, even so despoiled, it is still an imperial property. It has always been a training-school for ad-

ministrative ability, and the genius of its management to-day bids fair to redeem it from the errors and blunders of the past.

Now, of all the lessons that might be drawn from its varied and picturesque annals the bulky volume before us, of over 500 pages, reveals scarcely a hint. It is a lively, clever, newspaper relation of its outward subject, illustrating no principles by examples. It is little more than a miscellaneous mass of memoranda, arranged in some sequence, but without even an index of any kind. As such it may do service as a repository of facts for some future student of that overshadowing problem of our day—the power of corporations.

From the Child's Standpoint. By Florence Hull Winterburn. Baker & Taylor Co.

The growth of non-professional educational literature is a feature of our day. This volume consists of thirty-nine little essays, or sermonettes, on practical topics connected with the bringing up of children. Some of the essays have appeared before in the *Sunday-School Times* and in *Harper's Bazar*. Among the subjects are the following: "The Flower of Innocence," "An Uphill Journey" (combating the notion that school can always be easy, or that work is a hardship), "The Right to be Understood" (a little girl, on being told she was too small to do what she wanted, replied, "Yes, I suffer a great deal from that!"), "Childish Affinities," "Cultivating Taste" (parents fail to realize that this is an important part of their duty), "Picture Thinking." We quote the following from the essay on "Self-Government": "When a child shows the disposition to self-excuse, the best plan is not to blame him directly, but to manage so that facts will convict him. It is also desirable to refrain from the common temptation to 'drive a fault home.' A look, half-smiling, half-accusing, is efficacious, but words rouse the defensive instinct and lead to excuses." The following is from the essay on "Nothing Lasts but Love": "The doctrine that misery is good for people is exploded. We hear it said, sometimes, with some complacency, 'I had a pretty hard time in my young days, but I haven't made a worse man (or woman) for

it.' How do we know that? Perhaps we were made narrow, unsympathetic, selfish, by the very trials that seemed to have left no mark."

Mrs. Winterburn's essays give evidence of careful study of children and tender love for them; they are free from extreme views; they show practical good sense.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adler, Cyrus. The American Jewish Year Book. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
Baker, M. N. Potable Water, and Methods of Detecting Impurities. D. Van Nostrand Co. 50c.
Carpenter, G. H. Insects, their Structure and Life. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. \$1.75.
Dole, C. F. The Young Citizen. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 45c.
Declé, Lionel. Trooper 3809. A Private Soldier of the Third Republic. Scribners. \$1.25.
Faust, Prof. A. B. Heine's Prose. Macmillan.
Goss, C. F. Hits and Misses. F. A. Revell Co. \$1.
Herrick, Robert. Hesperides. 2 vols. [Temple Classics.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. \$1.
Jones, Rev. J. L. Jess: Bits of Wayside Gospel. Macmillan. \$1.50.
Longfield, Prof. F. Inorganic Chemical Preparations. Macmillan.
Montagu, Basil. Thoughts of Divines and Philosophers. [Temple Classics.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Pritchard, K. and H. A. Modern Mercenary. Doubleday & McClure Co. \$1.25.
Quackenbos, J. D. Enemies and Evidences of Christianity. Eaton & Mains. \$1.50.
Ragozin, Madame Z. A. A History of the World. Earliest Peoples. New York: W. B. Harrison.
Shaw, G. B. Cashel Byron's Profession. Brentanos. \$1.25.
Smith, Col. Nicholas. Stories of Great National Songs. Milwaukee, Wis.: Young Churchman Co.
Sneath, J. C. Lady Barbara. Appletons.
Spears, J. R. The Fugitive. Scribners. \$1.25.
Speer, W. W. Advanced Arithmetic. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Stephen, H. L. State Trials; Political and Social. London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
Sterne, Laurence. A Sentimental Journey. [Temple Classics.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Sykes, F. H. French Elements in Middle English. Oxford: Horace Hart.
Tait, Rev. James. Christianity without the Conscience. Montreal: William Drysdale Co.
Tarbell, H. S. and Martha. Lessons in Language and Grammar. Book II. Boston: Ginn & Co. 70c.
The Embassy of Sir Thomas Roe to India, 1615-1619. 2 vols. London: Hakluyt Society.
The Warner Classics. 4 vols. Doubleday & McClure Co. \$2.
Thomson, James. The City of Dreadful Night, and Other Poems. London: Dobell; Chicago: A. O. McClurg & Co. \$1.25.
Thurston, Mrs. Q. T. The Bishop's Shadow. F. H. Revell Co. \$1.25.
Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations. Vols. XLIX and L. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.
Treat, Prof. W. P. The Authority of Criticism, and Other Essays. Scribners. \$1.50.
Turgenev, Ivan. The Diary of a Superfluous Man, and Other Stories. Macmillan. \$1.25.
Vlymen, N. T. Third Reading Book. [Columbus Series.] New York: Schwartz, Kirwin & Fauss.
Warder, G. W. The New Cosmogony. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co.
Warman, Cy. The White Mail. Scribners. \$1.25.
Webster's Collegiate Dictionary. Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam Co.
Weston, T. C. Reminiscences among the Rocks. Toronto: Warwick Bros. & Rutter.

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